THE NATION'S SCHOOLS

DEVOTED TO THE APPLICATION OF RESEARCH TO THE BUILDING, EQUIPMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS

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Looking Forward . . .

Universities and the State Should Recognize and Reward Good Teaching . . . . Pressure Selling by Children Is Dangerous . . . . Should We Hire More Teachers? . . . Revolutionary Educational Tests Are Announced . . . . Do You Relax? . . . Higher Education Grows . . . . Let the Emergency Committee Help

THERE has been frequent mention at state and national gatherings that one of the real handicaps under which the teacher labors is lack of social prestige. Since the most prized rewards in our culture have been materialistic and are most frequently measured in terms of purchasing power, it is highly improbable that a sudden change in general direction is possible or that much greater immediate emphasis will be placed on nonmaterial values. However, it must also be apparent to any careful observer that until the profession regards itself more highly, it will be difficult to secure adequate recognition for achievement outside of the teaching group.

In our scheme of things who can successfully call attention to and reward outstanding teaching effort so that the people may become more conscious of the social contribution of the teacher? Careful analysis would indicate at least two capable major official agencies — the universities and the state — and an extralegal third, the profession itself.

It has become traditional practice for institutions of higher learning to honor at annual commencements or special convocations individuals who have, in institutional opinion, rendered outstanding service to society or to the institution. During the third decade of this century these honorary academic rewards grew so large and developed so patently an attitude of *quid pro quo* that the columnists began to view them with gentle humorous cynicism. As a result some contraction in earlier policy has been made and institutions of stable reputation are beginning to act more conservatively.

In general individuals given honorary academic recognition still may be divided into two large groups and one small group—those who have done or are expected to do something for the institution, those who are in a position to contribute considerable publicity to the institution through acceptance of the proffered honor, and those high ranking academic officials to be considered under the head of "senatorial courtesy." One may search a long, long time through the extensive list of academic honors to find that any recognition has been given to the teaching profession. Even within this excep-

tionally small group it is even more difficult to discover rewards to teachers in elementary or secondary schools. They represent again big names in higher education.

With one exception, the states make no attempt to provide a plan for recognizing merit and achievement and granting special rewards. While both the state and the institutions of higher learning give glib lip service to the worth and value of the teacher, they fail completely when official honors are dispensed.

There is no valid reason why state departments of public instruction should not hold annual convocations at which honors in the form of awards of merit or degrees would be given to those members of the teaching profession whose work merits recognition. Neither is there any reason why institutions of higher learning should not hold annual special institutes at which times suitable academic honors would be conferred and unusual teaching service recognized. This precedent has already been established in medicine and law. Until both the state and the university recognize the work of the teaching profession in public education, there is little hope that the layman will tend to do so. The first step is our own job.

WITH changes in instructional policies and the development of activity programs in elementary and secondary education there have crept into both public and nonpublic schools certain practices that should not be condoned. Dramatic presentation, concerts, bazaars and fairs may be highly desirable but the growing practice of high pressure selling by children for these events is far from sound. The tendency to keep children's productions simple and completely pupil projects has been displaced in too many schools by imitation of the commercial theater.

The development of expensive productions, or the principal's desire to secure special funds without going to the trouble of securing budgetary allowance, requires finance. This need for more money leads in turn to the unwarranted and dangerous exploitation of the children, forcing them by all the approved commercial pressure methods to make sales. Team competition, prizes for the largest sales, threats of bad citizenship marks for noncooperation, so-called honor rolls, development of spirit through pep meetings are among the means used to achieve sales. The children respond. They solicit adults with a vehemence and insistence that can scarcely be turned away. They become pests. The reaction of the adult forced by child pressure into making purchases is not good. It does not help the schools but tends to create an undercurrent of antagonism, breeding trouble spots. It is poor public relations practice.

In addition, it is decidedly dangerous for the children themselves. The recent brutal murder in Detroit of a twelve-year-old girl who was making door to door solicitation of punch board prizes to raise funds for her school should be a lesson to principals and teachers throughout the country. While house to house selling is considered more dangerous in a large city than in the village and town, we have no assurance that emotionally unstable and antisocial individuals with criminal tendencies are confined to the city.

The fault lies directly in the school. The entire gamut of practices listed here is not only bad methodology but morally and socially reprehensible. It is time to appraise these practices and substitute for them more rational and intelligent procedures. We are responsible.

MUCH of the essential work of reorganizing the secretariat of the National Education Association and then providing for vital changes in the organization itself is expected of President Henry Lester Smith by interested members of the profession. Although the secretarial incumbent, J. W. Crabtree, reached retirement age in April, 1934, the annual meeting found the board of trustees unprepared with plans for replacement. This obvious lack of planning brought a sharp reproof to that body during the Washington convention.

Needless to say, the membership is not going to look upon the appointment of a worn-out superintendent, an educational politician or a member of the existing board of trustees with any confidence. Any of these actions will merely hasten the end of an organization that needs strengthening at this crucial period.

Four months of the current year have elapsed and it is now possible to report some progress. Dean Smith will more than live up to expectations. Despite heavy pressure from certain directions, the board of trustees is still firmly backing his plan to secure the most outstanding and capable man for this position. There is room for considerable optimism on the part of those who wish the best for the N. E. A.

"ALL I want is sleep," a teacher recently confided to me. "Our work has been stepped up so heavily in the last three years that I can no longer respond to pep talks by superintendent and principals on in-service training for growth. At the end of the year I'm so tired that

summer school work offers no inspiration or valuable possibilities. I'm so tense that I can no longer enjoy even serious reading. The strain is heavy and even short articles of a professional nature seem heavy and dull."

Possibly this statement represents an exceptional case, but the chances are good that it is fairly typical of the urban teacher. What is the remedy? Teachers cannot develop and grow without adequate leisure. Teaching is much more of a nervous strain than insurance statistics for the preceding generation indicate. Nervous exhaustion is an element with which to cope.

There is a possible solution before many executives this year. Confronted in many cases with budget enlargements that permit the restoration of salary cuts and annual salary increases, they may adopt two policies. They may maintain the extraordinary work loads so typical of urban schools or they may restore the cuts and use the increments to employ more teachers for relief. It seems clear that most teachers would prefer relief from strain and overwork to the immediate increment. The fixing of the teacher work load solely in instruction hours has little validity in advanced administration. Definite provision should and must be made for other essential activity. Leisure to grow is definitely one of these factors. Unless the teacher's work is studied functionally and rationally instead of merely mechanically on a rule of thumb basis, a few years hence the schools may pay heavily in decreased efficiency.

DR. STUART A. COURTIS announces the publication of a series of educational tests based on new techniques of measurement and interpretation developed as a result of twenty-five years of research. As a pioneer in the testing movement this untiring investigator first presented his product in 1911 on a nonprofit, cooperative basis. Millions of these tests have been used throughout the English speaking world.

The new tests completely revolutionize his earlier assumptions. They are based on what he calls "the recently discovered Law of Maturation." They are simple to administer and can be used throughout an entire school system. The two arithmetic tests ready for standardization on a nationwide basis measure mastery of the combinations and include a test of the addition combinations and of the multiplication combinations. Doctor Courtis issues a cordial invitation to all school men to cooperate, after five years of direct experimentation, in this national standardization program. Those interested may address him at the University of Michigan.

AN EMINENT physiologist at the University of Chicago believes that individual adjustment to the present age of speed and the avoidance of high nervous tension are possible only through learning how to relax. His opinions are based on the results of twenty-five years of laboratory and hospital experience in the study of nervous diseases. For popular consumption he has written convincingly of his experiences and the success attained through his plan for relaxation.

Dr. Edmund Jacobson's theory on the part relaxation plays in adjustment to intense living is not original in itself. There have been many relaxation advocates and many systems. It does seem that the Chicagoan has made a distinctly new contribution to the art of living by his method of procedure. Its lesson certainly seems applicable to the teaching profession. The book is published by McGraw-Hill and is titled "You Must Relax."

BANKERS may be pessimistic and industrialists may revel in gloom but there are light and cheerfulness on practically every academic campus. Reports from western college and university centers indicate not only larger first and second year enrollments but also an apparently greater financial capacity on the part of those equipped with funds. Eastern institutions are holding their own. There are many who require aid and the emergency subsidization through FERA is going to be really helpful. On the whole, campus morale is much higher and a considerable spirit of optimism is indicated through more extensive spending. Certainly within another year colleges and universities should be well past the depression low.

THE committee on the National Emergency in Education, supplemented by the research division of the National Education Association, may be of unusual value to the public schools and to the profession during the current academic year by supplying material and advice to the official and professional groups in each state that are engaged in preparing plans and programs for early legislative consideration in 1933. All effort should be centered upon assistance rendered to these programs. Their popular acceptance and enactment into statutory form are absolutely essential as the first real step in educational reconstruction.

The Editor

Arizona's Plan for Reconstructing

ARIZONA cannot place blame for her shortcomings and failures in educational progress on local or state tradition. She is too young, having reached her majority as a state only two years ago.

Nevertheless we in Arizona are aware of certain weaknesses and deficiencies in our educational program, due in part to our own laissez faire procedure, and in part to the fact that we are part of a great national educational program that has held too closely to things traditional and has wandered too far from the problems of everyday life.

The progressive framers of Arizona's constitution, in giving much liberty and great powers to the people through provisions for the initiative and referendum, the recall of judges and other public officials, recognized that with much power must go ample provision for education. In the Enabling Act, Congress set aside a grant far more liberal than those given to older states, in the form of four sections of land for building up a permanent school fund.

The state constitution provided for a complete general system of public education, including kindergarten, common schools, high schools, normal schools, industrial schools and a university, which shall include an agricultural college, a school of mines and such other technical schools as may be essential until such time as it may be deemed advisable to establish separate state institutions of such character. Provision for education of the handicapped deaf, dumb and blind was made.

Arizona goes farther than most states in the matter of state aid to schools. The justice of the principle of equalization of opportunity was recognized and an early legislature appropriated $500,000 for state aid. Successive legislatures increased this amount until in 1921 a substantial provision was made, providing $25 per capita for each child in average daily attendance in any school in the state. To be certain that children in poor and isolated districts might be educated as future citizens, each one-room school was given $1,500 and each two-room school received $3,000. Furthermore, the law provides that a large share of school support shall come from the counties.

All Schools Kept Open for Eight Months a Year

Besides the per capita appropriation from the state treasury, the state legislature appropriates directly for the two state teachers' colleges and for the state university, as well as matching funds for vocational education.

The last legislature, pressed by demands for rigid economy, made a reduction of 20 per cent in the equalization funds. In spite of reduced funds and increased attendance, Arizona is among a small group of states that have kept all schools open for at least eight months each year. This was possible because the heavy burden in these days of

Public Education

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hardship in farming and mining was borne by state and county. However, equipment and upkeep suffered and in many instances teachers carried too heavy a load.

Out of it all has come a realization on the part of school boards and patrons that without state support many of the schools would have been closed. They awakened to the idea that instead of being reduced, state support should be increased. More than that, the attention of taxpayers was focused upon the whole problem of school support and our antiquated system of taxation. For a number of years certain leaders have been calling attention to the coming tax crisis, the breakdown of our property tax and the need of new sources of revenue, but the difficulties arising out of the advanced stage of the depression have brought home to all the people the realization that new conditions call for changes in sources of support.

Without doubt legislation will be proposed to relieve property from supporting state government and to develop new types of taxes. The sales tax and the luxury and income taxes adopted two years ago have found sufficient favor to ensure their reenaction and augmentation. Relief of property tax and development of new sources of revenue are fundamental steps in the educational reconstruction program.

Of necessity a new state must spend largely to build schools and to equip them. In times of prosperity bonds are easily voted. Fine buildings have been erected. The process of redemption is a slower one, and plans therefor are too often postponed. This is a problem the state must face. A plan for refunding debts of long standing must be found.

Several states, including Arizona, have found that funds accumulating from their permanent school funds have been diverted to other channels or have been placed as loans that were not carefully protected. Lack of attention to that phase of the state's business which involves school funds finally leads to an awakening that is not pleasant. Alertness to the management of state school funds is a constructive attitude.

Two Dangerous Amendments Defeated

All educational forces must combine to develop leadership to bring about understanding of the school, its goals, curriculum, administration, costs and methods of financing. Two years ago groups of taxpayers, intent upon drastic curtailment but not informed as to the full import of their activities, brought out two serious measures and attempted to write them into the state constitution. They would have turned back the program of education and government to the period of 1913, wiping out the state equalization fund and other progressive provisions and placing permanent depression on the state.

It was then that the educational forces with united front organized leaders in each county to inform the people and to defeat the amendments. It was a hard fought victory for education. More significant than this single victory was the realization that the people love their schools and will rise in their defense, but that they are not acquainted with the schools in their midst, their goals, curriculum and method of support. This is a challenge to the school people of the state.

For the last two years the state department of education has gone directly to the people with the problems confronting education, welcoming the suggestions and cooperation of lay leaders of the state. Each member of the state department is professionally educated and takes part in conferences with educators and lay leaders. A significant conference was one held in the Capitol during the session of the last state legislature. Representatives from taxpayers' organizations, women's clubs, men's service clubs, the state parent-teacher congress and other groups discussed the pertinent questions, "How much education shall we pay for?" and "What kinds?"

Along with many helpful suggestions from various representatives was the conclusion expressed by several lay leaders that the people look to those in places of responsibility in education to determine the policies and to use their judgment born of years of experience and the present need of economy in determining "what" and "how much." This was an expression of the confidence that is so essential between educational leaders and the lay public.

In January of this year a statewide program on Modern Curriculum Offerings was presented by the state department. Speakers on the platforms in every community included representatives from each of the state teachers' colleges and from the state university, as well as from the state department. A national authority on creative education was the leading speaker on the general theme, "What Are Our Children Worth?"

In March, educators of the state assembled in legislative halls of the Capitol in a carefully planned state guidance conference. Platform leaders were guidance authorities from Stanford University who gave a series of addresses. Panel discussions led by state educators brought out viewpoints of both educators and lay representatives. Attendance and participation were gratifying for each of the three days of the conference. Evening sessions of educators were given over to summarizing each day's work, to developing the special interests of the various educational groups, and to organizing plans for carrying out programs to be set up.

Echoes of these conferences of the last two years

Chandler Junior and Senior High School. Chandler is a small town in the Salt River Valley, twenty miles from Phoenix.

Bountiful trees and shrubbery enhance greatly the beauty of the Mines and Engineering Building at the University of Arizona in Tucson.

reach the state department, indicating that the educators of the state and lay leaders recognize that conferences and better understanding of the problems confronting the state have developed confidence and a desire to work together for their solution.

Problems confronting Arizona are similar to those confronting older states. Perhaps our procedures and their weaknesses are not so deeply intrenched. We hope we are open-minded and willing to face conditions as they are, to seek out the weak places, to plan for changes through administration or legislation and to put into action corrective measures.

Curriculum Revision and Installation

A two-year program of curriculum revision for the elementary schools has been under way. Under the direction of a member of the department of education of the state university, assisted by faculty members of the two state teachers' colleges and a number of classroom teachers, the entire curriculum has been revised, emphasis being placed on the attainment of knowledge, attitudes and skills leading to an understanding and appreciation of the world in which our children live. Special emphasis has been placed in the social science courses upon understanding and participation in civic service, and the development of attitudes leading to personality growth. This elementary course is being installed in the schools of the state this fall, with recognition of the fact that curriculum development is a constant process if instruction is to keep in touch with a changing world.

Arizona provides free textbooks for elementary schools. Recent adoptions in social science texts are of the same progressive trend as the new course of study. The state department of education administers a thoroughly modern program of tests and measurements.

A committee has been appointed by the state superintendent of public instruction to plan and write a course of study for the secondary schools of the state. This committee has met for organization and is already at work.

Certification of Teachers

Certification of Arizona teachers is centered in the state board of education. A gradual process of eliminating short term certificates, raising standards and establishing new types, such as the administrator's certificate (1933) has improved the teaching situation. Only a limited number of old-time life certificates are still in operation. By 1936 all persons seeking an elementary certificate must present four years' work above graduation. Those now holding two-year certificates must have three years' training by 1940. Those seeking the general secondary certificate must, by 1936, present thirty hours' graduate work above the bachelor's degree. By 1946 all teachers in the state must present the bachelor's degree or its equivalent in order to secure a certificate.

The special administrator's certificate is required in all schools of five or more teachers. The administrator seeking this certificate must present three years of teaching experience and fifteen hours above the bachelor's degree, these hours to be in the fields of supervision and administration. In this way we are placing emphasis upon preparation for teaching.

All three of our higher institutions train teachers for the public schools. They are constantly revising their courses and training facilities to harmonize with changing social and economic demands. While not all graduates are placed imme-

diately upon graduation, most of them are placed during the year. This year a high percentage has been placed.

Arizona began participation in a vocational program at an early date, and a staff of well trained leaders studies the needs of the state and keeps in direct and constant touch with those departments in the schools of the state.

Arizona has given full cooperation to the educational phases of the federal relief program which has enabled needy and qualified persons to contribute to the improvement and welfare of persons not reached by the public schools. This program will be continued and better organized and administered this year because of some provision for supervisors. Some needed improvements have been made in school grounds and buildings through federal funds.

The special fact finding commission is a real volunteer working commission appointed by the governor. Its members, representing every sort of group in the state, are delving into every phase of the state's business, statistical and financial, as it affects the educational program. They have been at work for a year and will continue, summarizing their efforts in December before the opening of the legislature in January.

Preparing for Legislative Session

School administrators and the teaching forces of the state through the Arizona Education Association have united in supporting a legislative program that will mean more stable school support, protection of permanent school funds and new teacher retirement provision.

Both the state department of education and leaders in the Arizona Education Association work on the principle that preparation for the legislature is half the battle. Through public discussions, conferences and fact finding groups, information bearing on legislative questions has been gathered and disseminated. During the past session of the legislature, while we did not gain all that we consider desirable, there was an attitude of recognizing leadership in the ranks of the state educators.

Several groups in the educational field within the state have already set certain goals in legislation for the coming session.

There is general recognition of the fact that Arizona's equalization per capita placed her in that group of states that had no schools closed during the depression period. The legislative committee of the Arizona Education Association and the committee for the Arizona Congress of Parents and Teachers have each gone on record as favoring the restoration of the equalization per capita to a higher level, and suggest raising from $20 to $30 per capita. The state department of education is in accord with this plan and would suggest $40 per capita.

All groups will present with this request another — that there be a definite allocation of funds from some other sources of revenue besides the property tax, looking toward a pronounced relief for property owners in support of state government. The eventual goal is to relieve property entirely from the support of state government. This means that all are interested in the development of new sources of revenue with definite allocation of some of these funds for education.

A Proposed Teacher Retirement Measure

Over a period of years Arizona has been trying to get sufficient appropriation to build an institution to care for her defective children. To date $25,000 has been appropriated with which a site of 177 acres in a fertile valley has been purchased. This year an effort was made to begin building on this site with PWA funds. But the fact that no beginning unit stood on the grounds cut off the possibility of aid from that source. Several groups will be interested in a legislative appropriation to begin construction of one or more units.

For more than twenty years Arizona has provided a yearly pension of $600 to retired teachers who have taught for thirty years and have reached sixty years of age. The entire pension has been met by the state. Educators have this year prepared a teacher retirement measure, actuarially sound, whereby teachers will make contributions from their earnings and with state cooperation build up an annuity for retiring teachers.

Candidates for office this year have been school-minded. Especially is this true of candidates for the legislature, who have lost no opportunity in the primary to let the people know they wish a restoration of the equalization per capita to a higher level. It remains for educators and school patrons to seek renewals of these promises before the general election and to hold contacts established until the legislature places tangible results on the statute books.

The state department and other educational bodies have not overlooked the use of enlightening and constructive publicity on educational problems and needs. There has all along been an attitude of willingness to confer and to cooperate. Newspapers, magazine articles and radio broadcasts have been freely used.

A well defined program based on surveys and findings of research workers in the state, supported by fact finding efforts of lay groups in sympathy with schools, should result in positive reconstruction for the schools of Arizona.

Five Principles Essential to Federal Aid for Education

"A popular government without popular information of the means of acquiring it is but a prologue to a farce or a tragedy, or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power knowledge gives."

—JAMES MADISON

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THE need of a broad and thorough educational opportunity for every child in America was aptly stated by the National Conference on Financing Education:

"The lack of provision for education in any area cannot but result in limiting the possible development of the social, economic, and cultural life of the whole people. The children living in the several states will rule not only in the localities and in the states in which they live, but will determine as well the policies which are to control and the government which is to prevail throughout the nation. The preservation and development of our society as well as simple equity demand that the nation assume a larger responsibility in the support of the public school system."

The question of federal aid is not new. It has been debated for 150 years. During most of that period some form of federal aid to public schools has been in operation. The record was admirably summarized by the above named conference.

During the past year, we have witnessed another venture in the distribution of federal aid to education in the form of grants to establish nursery schools, to promote adult education, to construct school buildings, and for various other purposes designed primarily to give employment. We shall witness more of the same thing during 1934-1935.

During the emergency, we have had federal aid to agriculture, to banks, to railroads and to many other forms of corporate industry. It is apparent that new forces are loosed in our national life and that few can foresee where these emergency policies may ultimately lead.

Under the operating conditions of the last three or four years there is a confusion of tongues. There are those who argue that the federal government has no authority under the Constitution to support public education. There are others who believe that federal control must accompany federal support. These fall into two groups: those who fear such control, and those who would welcome it. And finally there are those who profess to see no need for federal aid. To this last argument, I would address attention first.

Need for Federal Aid

During the last twenty years, the civilized world has passed through experiences that test institutions and political philosophies. There was the World War, which for four years devoured youth and burned up the accumulated savings of generations of men. Then came, in the United States, a period of inflation which all but destroyed men's confidence and faith in the simpler, homelier economic virtues of both the individual and the public life. And finally, the economic crisis has caught most of the civilized world, has contributed to the wreck of governments, and has everywhere caused men, honestly or otherwise, to question whether the forms and functions of government, particularly of democratic government, could or should long endure. We may well ask whether the American people "mean to be their own governors."

The systems of public schools in our several states were laid in a pioneer period. Means of communication were difficult, and transportation was limited. Obviously, the only sensible thing for a new state to do was to delegate both control and support of schools to the local community.

But times have changed. We have become an industrial people. Means of transportation and communication have been revolutionized. The

radius of community interest has immeasurably lengthened. Wealth has passed from rural to urban life and has there become highly segregated. Marginal farm lands have added their quota to the distress of children needing education. Long since, state lines have ceased being barriers to those who control wealth and the power that it brings. What is the result?

Inequalities in State Support

Carr estimated the annual national income per child between the ages of six and seventeen inclusive as $2,481. The range was from $930 in Mississippi to $4,299 in Nevada. New York had an income of $4,261, Massachusetts of $3,906, Illinois of $3,399 and California of $3,386 per child. In contrast North Carolina had $998; Alabama, $1,017; South Carolina, $1,074, and Arkansas, $1,163.

Obviously, the capacity of the several states to support an educational program is radically different. The question then arises as to whether the poorer states can finance an adequate foundation program. Many factors enter into this answer. We shall consider two—the length of the school year and the salaries of rural teachers.

In the five wealthier states named, the regular school term varying from eight to ten months was maintained last year; whereas of the five poorer states, three operated some schools less than three months of the year, and the number of schools operating less than six months was estimated at 4,189 in Alabama, 450 in Arkansas, 1,564 in Mississippi, 13 in North Carolina and 1,688 in South Carolina.

Estimates for the five poorer states under consideration showed that the following numbers of teachers would receive an annual salary of less than $450: in Alabama, 7,429; in Arkansas, 3,500; in Mississippi, 7,372; in North Carolina, 3,688, and in South Carolina, 4,642. In contrast, Illinois was the only one of the wealthier states in which any teacher received an annual wage of less than $450.

The contrast could be repeated indefinitely. The fact remains that the poorer states do not provide educational opportunity commensurate with that of the wealthier states.

The reasons for extreme inequalities among the states in ability to support an adequate foundation program of public education are not difficult to find. In most of the states the burden of support is placed on the general property tax and bears most heavily upon agriculture. Added to this is the extreme segregation of wealth, which knows no barriers so far as state lines are concerned. The result is the breakdown of public education in large areas, particularly in the rural areas of the United States. Local support of schools, derived solely or primarily from the general property tax, has broken down. Unless there is help from state or nation, ever increasing numbers of American children will be denied an education. For ever increasing numbers local support means school terms of two, three or four months a year, teachers with little or no preparation for teaching, a curriculum limited to the barest rudiments of the three R's, buildings and equipment both unsightly and insanitary, and practically no opportunity for a high school education.

Some say that if the states would revise their systems of taxation, there would be no need of support from the federal government. Obviously, the revision of state systems of taxation is a crying need and should be pushed vigorously as a companion measure to the better support of public education; but in the final analysis, tax reform and state equalization of educational opportunity will not be sufficient. There will still remain marked differences in the financial ability of the states to support education.

We have referred to those who fear federal control and to those who would welcome it. The crux of the matter is not in federal *versus* state control but in state *versus* local control.

In the pioneer days of early statehood, the states were obliged to organize schools within walking distance of all children and to delegate control to the local districts. In most of the states, the power of control over schools is still lodged in these smaller subdivisions. Most states have limited state aid to promoting special services or to helping indigent districts maintain some semblance of a minimum educational program. Their state leadership rests on a political basis subject to the exigencies of state politics. The control and support of schools rest almost exactly where they did when the state first established a system of free public schools. In these states, the opponents of federal control are not advocating state control; they are defending this issue of local control.

Issue Here Almost Wholly Economic

The chief issue is whether our system of public schools can be so reorganized as to guarantee a high degree of local initiative in the development and control of education and at the same time secure the larger advantages that can come through measures of state and federal support with the corresponding measure of state control. The issue of federal support depends, in large measure, upon whether the states can develop adequate controls over their own school systems.

The issue here is almost wholly economic. It is tied up with the whole problem of state and federal

taxation. In the final analysis, a better educational program for the poorer states must be paid for out of the national income.

The majority of the states have as yet set up no adequate machinery for equalizing educational opportunity. If the federal government granted funds to these states, there is no assurance that it would get to those children who need it most. In fact, there is every reason to believe that it would not so arrive, under the systems of state school support now existing in the majority of the states.

Until the states can develop some adequate measure for the equalization of educational opportunity, the question of federal support involves the danger of the federal government's attempting to deal directly with the local school district. This is one of the stumbling blocks in the whole discussion of federal aid. Whatever controls the federal government may set up should be restricted to its dealing with the state governments.

Foundation Program vs. *Special Interests*

There is another problem. With the exception of the land grants in support of education federal aid has been largely in the form of special grants in support of special educational interests, such as the Smith-Lever and the Smith-Hughes acts. When originally conceived, these acts were opportune and vital to the development of the country. But rightly or wrongly, the methods of administering these funds have raised fundamental questions as to the nature and extent of federal control involved in the further federal support of education. In spite of their good intentions, the proponents of special aid have contributed largely to discrediting the ideal of federal aid. Both those who favor limiting federal aid to the support of special educational interests and those who see the ill effects of such aid have failed to visualize the social significance of placing the nation's entire wealth back of every child to be educated.

Then, too, there are those who still class education with charity. They conceive federal aid as charity to be dispensed by all-wise individuals on the federal pay roll. Naturally, they find ready support from those who see the political assets of such "all-wise" dispensation. Those who would dispense federal aid only to "indigent" districts fall perilously near to this classification. American democracy will not grow in stature and usefulness to the world through the dispensation of charity.

The need for federal aid is apparent. The means of granting it is not so clear. Looking beyond the immediate emergency, there are certain fundamental principles that should be useful in formulating a plan for federal support of free public schools.

1. *Federal aid should guarantee the highest possible level of educational opportunity to every child in America.* This is what the recent advocates of federal aid have termed a "foundation program." It includes more than the commonly held concept of a "minimum essentials" program. It means to guarantee the highest possible standard or minimum program to all and at the same time to open the way to progress beyond this minimum.

2. *Federal aid should be granted to the states and not to the subdivisions thereof.* The application of this principle eliminates the threat of bureaucratic control of public education. It leaves the issue of state *versus* local control to be settled by each state in the light of the best interests of the people concerned.

3. *Federal control should be through law rather than through the discretionary power of boards, commissions or individual officials.* The act establishing federal aid should specify the terms or conditions under which the states might participate in such aid. The terms should include those already tried and proved in the distribution of state aid to schools, namely, (a) a plan or formula for distribution on the basis of need; (b) the establishment by the state of an equalized financial foundation program; (c) the establishment of an equalized tax rate or measure of full valuation of property as a basis for equalizing support of the foundation program, and (d) the right guaranteed to each local district to go beyond the foundation program set by the state.

4. *Congress should reserve to the United States Commissioner of Education the right to conduct researches and investigations as to the use of federal funds apportioned in support of education and to publish the results of his investigations.* Through such a policy the best practices evolved in any state would tend to become the property of every state. Inefficiencies would tend to disappear before the pitiless spotlight of publicity. The chief educational officer of the federal government would grow in authority only through the divine right of being useful and not through the bureaucratic exercise of any economic power vested in his office.

5. *Beyond the limited controls to be written in the federal statute the controls of education would be vested in the education departments of the several states.* The measures advocated herein will tend to strengthen rather than weaken state control. Regardless of the issue of federal aid, the states must inevitably assume some of the controls and a larger share of the financial support delegated in their pioneer days to the local districts. Only through the assumption of such responsibility by the states can democracy achieve the goals visioned by the founders of this republic.

How One City Is Handling the Teacher Surplus

By HARRY CLARK
Superintendent, Knoxville Public Schools, Knoxville, Tenn.

SINCE Knoxville is the seat of the state university and also of Knoxville College for Negroes, it is a city that faces a surplus of teachers in an aggravated form. In addition, many other towns are refusing to employ any except home teachers, and Knoxville men and women who have been teaching elsewhere have been discharged and are seeking places in the Knoxville city schools.

As a means of reducing teacher unemployment, our city has conducted a successful three years' experiment which has enlisted the hearty support of principals, teachers, school board and patrons and on which we are ready now to report.

Advantages for the School

All vacancies, so far as is possible, are divided between two part-time teachers, each of whom is paid a little more than one-half of the salary that one teacher would receive. It would not be necessary to pay more than one-half, but we prefer to because we ask of each teacher a little more than a half a day's work.

Under the plan two teachers, A and B, are paired. While A is teaching, B stays in the school office to answer telephones so the principal may have more time in which to visit the teachers. In small schools that cannot afford a clerk, this plan provides clerical service. At alternate periods or at midday A and B change places.

Another part-time teacher during the period she is not teaching may tutor two or three pupils who have been absent from school for illness or other causes. She may assist the attendance officer in checking up on the requests of indigent children or she may escort a sick child to his home. If one of the regular teachers is absent, one of these half-time teachers is available in the building for substitute work. As a result during the last three years we have called few substitutes. The half-time teacher, already in the building, is more familiar with the local school problem and atmosphere and can more easily adapt herself to the work.

The school system secures as applicants the serious minded candidates who really want to make teaching a life work. Those who want to teach only one year and then go into some other occupation withdraw their applications when told they must work one year at half-pay. Those who want to transfer temporarily into teaching until salaries increase in their previous field likewise withdraw their applications. These lawyers, insurance agents, salesmen and stenographers who have crowded temporarily into teaching are largely responsible for the 200,000 teacher surplus in the United States and for the crumbling of salaries through competitive bidding.

Benefits to the Teacher

The plan constitutes an ideal means of training cadet teachers who have finished college. During their college course they have had observation work and practice teaching, but the moment they begin to teach they find that they need more observation and that they observe new problems in the face of actual needs which they did not observe in the artificial conditions in their undergraduate course. Accordingly when a teacher has a felt need for help in some subject, she may be sent across the city during one whole day to observe some superior teacher in another school. On the next day she will teach all day for her companion teacher in order that the companion teacher may be sent across the city to observe the best practices of a regular experienced teacher.

More young teachers get a chance to get experience. When upon graduating from college a would-be teacher applies for a position, she is usually met by the statement, "We employ none except experienced teachers." Our plan enables the schools to give more young would-be teachers the needed experience.

Obviously this plan increases the number of young people who are employed and thereby reduces unemployment.

We have found that one of the chief causes for failure with young teachers is fatigue. Becoming fatigued, the new teacher grows irritated and loses control of the discipline of her room. When the beginning teacher teaches only a half a day, she starts her teaching under favorable auspices, is not fatigued and therefore has fewer disciplinary difficulties.

At the end of the year all part-time teachers are made full-time teachers for the following year at full-time salaries, if they have succeeded as beginners. This gives the schools a chance to select new teachers on the basis of trial in their own system.

Courtesy Newark Museum, Newark, N. J.

Improving on Barnum—

Plans for a Children's Museum

By JOHN CARR DUFF
New York University

THE children's museum, while not exactly an innovation, is something less than commonplace in the American scene. The oldest children's museums are as old as the century, but the movement as a whole — if there is a movement — is just hatching. The fact that the concept is not a crystallized one, with a full complement of standardized practices, is the aspect of the movement that makes it of great promise. Therefore, it is worth while to take our bearings before we have sailed any farther on what can be a great adventure in education.

The children's museum is the child of the adult museum crossbred with the public school. It has as its natural heritage some of the best and some of the worst features of each.

The conventional adult museum is principally a classified collection of objects either under glass in cases or fenced off against overfamiliar approach and defended by uniformed guards and a generous sprinkling of "Hands Off" signs. The educational value of exhibits in cases may be great, but these museums invite one to learn by looking only, and all the natural impulses of children are to extend their experience of objects far beyond what they can perceive in this way. They want to touch; they want to manipulate the object.

Most objects need not be smelled or tasted or heard, but it is a very mature person who can resist the impulse to touch a newly painted park bench, regardless of how many signs attest that the paint is wet; and it is a rare person, whatever his age, who does not have the urge to explore new objects tactually as well as visually.

It stands to reason, of course, that rare and fragile objects must not be handled. Indeed, in the conventional museum there are few objects that are readily replaced — it is their rarity, in some measure, that makes them museum items. The damage done even by careful handling would wear out many objects, while accidents, abusive handling and theft would w r e c k a collection if it w e r e not displayed out of reach.

The s e w i n g group shown above is working on a quilt in the Junior Museum, Newark, N. J. A quilting bee is an adequate expression for the urges girls discover in displays of early American household arts.

The urge to touch, to change, to control is met in some degree by the new type of mechanical exhibits that can be set in motion by an electric button accessible to the observer. When the button is pressed, lights come on or the wheels go around or whole chains of complex mechanical gadgets go through their routine, while the person at the button experiences a sensation of intimacy with the machine, an illusion of power and a vicarious satisfaction of his natural desire to manipulate.

How much one actually learns in this type of experience is related to many other factors, but the attitude induced is one largely favorable to learning. At least, this is an assumption which may be inferred from the fact that such electrically controlled displays are in wide use. We may some day find our museums equipped with mechanical dragons and what not, so that Junior, by pressing a small button, can make the dinosaurs rise to their awful majesty and lash about, and growl!

Rigor Mortis

There is a story about a little boy's first visit to a natural history museum. Later his mother asked him where they had been. He replied without much enthusiasm that he had been to see a dead circus. It might have been more accurate if he had said a dead zoo, but what had impressed him most was that everything was dead. The natural science museum at its best inevitably lacks the characteristic possessed by its neighbors, the botanical and zoological gardens — the presence of life. Stuffed fish and birds and animals, and wax plants and flowers are unnatural objects that the individual must learn to accept solely for the particular values they have.

The child does not recognize these values and accepts the exhibits only with reservations. Even the ethnological museums share this limitation, for their Indians, my youngest son assures me, are stuffed Indians.

These common limitations of museums are, in a measure, compensated for by other features. In this consideration of the possibilities of a children's museum, I am starting with the assumption that museum practices can be adjusted in many ways to conform to the needs of children, their interests and their capacities. In making such adjustments or in drawing up a plan that will from the beginning obviate the necessity for major adjustments, it is patently the first step to set down the limitations placed upon museums and to recognize the ones that permit no compromise. A museum cannot be a zoo. And it cannot let its treasures be used as playthings. Some exhibits would not be improved by the addition of machinery to give them motion — the plaster casts of the Parthenon sculptures and the characteristic exhibits of the Egyptology wings.

But the deadness of some museums is due to lack of purpose, confusion of purposes, lack of planning and lack of technique. Constructive purpose was lacking in the early museums, for they were only glorified trophy rooms. The head-hunters in Formosa display their grizzly trophies in the medicine lodge, and in Europe certain national museums are used to house the plunder of victorious military campaigns. For our own museums American millionaires have captured some of the most valuable art objects to signify the triumphs of the American culture. While the millionaires bought their trophies, the "naturalists" went after theirs, indulging their love of nature by bringing back the hides of every kind of an animal that could be trapped or shot.

Whatever degree of sophistication we have now attained, Americans of a few generations ago were a simple people, hungry for marvels. Their humor, appropriately, was one based on exaggeration. Nature fakers brought forth greater and greater wonders, and our grandfathers gaped and were entertained, even when they knew they were being duped. The naïveté, curiosity and credulity upon which the remarkable Mr. Barnum confidently relied were characteristic of the age before scientific knowledge and scientific thinking had made appreciable inroads on the wide fields of ignorance and superstition. In our times, the freak shows of the circus and county fair are vestigial remains from the era when Barnum flourished. His famous museum was a glorified side show, and the earlier efforts in public museums, contemporary with Barnum, show unmistakably the influence of the great showman. If they did not advertise five-legged calves, they had mummified cats and other such unbelievables still among the most popular type of exhibits.

The Revolt of the Museum

But the museum was discovering a purpose. It began to take itself seriously as an educational institution. It began to shake off the freak show character and to assume the respectability it deserved when it reflected the notable victories that young science was winning over old superstition. Its curators discovered better techniques of preparing and displaying exhibits and began to weed out the deadest ones to make room for new examples of a transcendent taxidermy, for exhibitions of the work of contemporary artists, and for the increasingly important technological items. The staff of guides and lecturers was enlarged. Story tellers were scheduled for young children. Moving pictures, brought in to supplement the exhibits,

served to compensate in some degree for the static character of the museum. And friendly relations were established with the public schools.

Still, there is no indication that the school authorities and the directors of the museums commonly recognize that they are serving one purpose.

Courtesy Newark Museum, Newark, N. J.

Scenery in the making for a Junior Museum play. Dramatics, pantomimes and pageants are activities which grow spontaneously out of the inspiration in a modern museum when the time, the place and the opportunity are available.

At the very best the work of the museum and that of the school are coordinated, not integrated. They have not the same traditions. They speak a different language. The teachers in the museum are not teachers but "decents." Perhaps it is fair to say that they have one concept in common: traditionally, schools and museums both conceive of education largely as the process of acquiring factual knowledge about things. They glorify the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake. Individual purpose or social purpose is not important. The individual is encouraged to be a magpie collector of facts the same as the museum has been of objects.

It is well enough to claim that this familiarity with objects is cultural, but it is too frequently a sterile kind of culture that dies without ever finding any useful application. It may enrich the life of an individual who, through the pleasure he has in knowing about things, has the illusion of power over them. It leads too rarely to action of a dynamic, positive nature. It is academic and sometimes it begets an academic snobbery.

Learning in a museum is like learning elsewhere. The indispensable element is purpose. Nothing one learns is important at all if it does not produce a chemical change in him — a certain kind of chemical change, too — the one resulting when a person has the emotional satisfaction of doing something he wants to do, and doing it well.

The museum itself has no glands and no muscles. Its energy is potential. It is valuable only as it stimulates the imagination of somebody who can do things, or helps him to do well what he feels the impulse to do. This holds for any branch of museum service. It holds for the art galleries. A painting is good for one if it puts the visitor on better terms with the subject represented. A picture of an apple is a good picture, Rockwell Kent has said, when it makes you want to go and eat an apple. The finest collection of ceramics is so much crockery if it leaves its patrons indifferent to the character of their own teacups.

Learning depends upon purpose in the sense also that what is learned is good or bad, significant or puerile, transitory or permanent according to how it is used. It is easier, it seems, to stimulate individualistic motives than social ones. But pub-

lic education is a social function and must be directed to social ends. Therefore, the museum that is planned to serve effectively the greatest social need today will emphasize experiences that promote social motives.

The children's museum, then, will serve its patrons best if it is organized and administered in such a manner as to inspire purposeful activity, and to encourage and approve it. This is the bond the museum has with the school. The museum will stimulate youngsters to carry out projects — construction projects, research projects, problem projects — but the school, not the museum, is the place where such work can most effectively be carried to a natural conclusion in a social environment. The home is also a workshop, especially for highly specialized individual projects.

Necessary Complements of the Museum

The museum, of course, has no monopoly on inspiration but is only one of many sources. In the school, in the library, in the home, in a great variety of enriched experiences the child, ideally, will find stimulation for his cherished interests and the germs of new ones. The nature of the museum's equipment requires that its services be complemented by those of the library, and if possible the two should be under one roof and one staff.

The school is another necessary complement of the museum and library, for the school possesses facilities that they do not. The school has room. It has furniture and equipment and supplies. It has facilities, more or less adequate, for adult supervision of the activities children may choose to engage in. The school controls a large part of the time of all boys and girls, and to do worth while things takes time — time and room and tools and material and help and encouragement.

Museum Will Display Pupils' Projects

The school provides the setting, the occasion, and, what is most important perhaps, the means to socialize learning experiences. It has the means, and if so far it has too generally ignored these means in favor of a highly competitive, individualized method of teaching academic abstractions, then it is so much the more in need of help from every agency that will reveal the possibilities of learning that is socialized, purposeful and practical.

The children's museum will display as an important part of its exhibits the best examples of group and individual projects, especially those that represent work done in school. Such displays will be inspiring to children because the projects are convincing demonstrations of what has been done by their peers — of what they can do as well. The public exhibition of the completed projects will be

Courtesy Newark Museum, Newark, N. J.

In this picture children are holding, touching, feeling—"experiencing"—objects from the museum collections.

American girls borrow something rare from the age-old customs of Japan, and the Oriental dolls come down from the two-dimensional life on the shelves and enter the three-dimensional lives of June and Mary.

Courtesy Newark Museum, Newark, N. J.

gratifying and stimulating to those who have contributed toward their preparation.

This form of recognition, approval and encouragement is at present a major function of the children's museum and will do much to promote progressive methods in the schools. The teacher is calloused beyond hope if he does not share in the elation his pupils experience when their project is selected for special exhibition at the museum.

Museum Is No Cure-All for Dull Teachers

If teaching is formal and academic in most classrooms today it is fundamentally so because teachers find satisfaction in such methods. The children's museum is no cure-all for dull or ignorant or unenlivened teachers. But if it is set up with the conscious purpose of promoting creative teaching, it can do that. This purpose implies that the museum staff will see the museum as a service agency and will not compete with the school by attempting to do things that are the privilege and the obligation of the school. It will not do for the progressive museum to surrender the school to formalists and to say that the school program can never be reconciled with the museum program. It is a sad affair if the school thinks of education so largely in terms of the traditional purposes and methods that it is willing for the museum to monopolize the dynamic interest of the children they both serve.

I have suggested that, to supplement their rarities, museums should provide some objects that can be touched, handled, manipulated. The children's museums have recognized this principle, and the best equipped ones even provide a lending service. A child may borrow a box of crystals, or a tray of arrowheads, or a costume doll, each accompanied by printed information and references for study. It is certain that some of these will be damaged in use, and replacements are provided as new books are provided in a public library for those worn out in honest service.

The children's museum serves children best, however, when it supplies them with wants, with needs, with urges. If it turns about and satisfies these wants by providing finished projects for the child to use, the child has been robbed of the educational experiences inherent in doing, making, creating. However perfect in detail the costume doll Mary Jane may borrow to "study," it is less significant than almost any kind of a doll Mary Jane has carefully dressed according to the best information she can discover for herself about the costume she wishes to represent in miniature.

Obviously, there are some objects that the museum had better provide. For instance, if it is necessary to study stuffed birds, it is better that the museum's robin should be lent. But there is some question as to why anyone except an advanced student of ornithology should need to study a stuffed bird. Whoever loves birds learns most about them by studying living ones, by watching them in flight, by observing them with field glasses, by sketching their color, recording their songs, and providing shelter and food and protection for them.

The traditional museum offers stuffed birds because it is an agency of the old academic tradition. Academicians seek to employ short cuts to knowl-

Carnegie Museum, Pittsburgh

Comparisons are not always odious—not when they help the young collector identify his newest prize.

edge, abstract short cuts that are offered as substitutes for concrete experience. A stuffed robin, in this philosophy, is an abstraction. It represents the academic approach to the appreciation of nature. It is recommended as a partial substitute for the delight that other people have in a robin's lyrical song at evening, and his hops and chirps on a green lawn after the rain.

Treasures to Borrow

Giving is more blessed than receiving, and lending more blessed than borrowing in many cases. But a children's museum that lends and does not also borrow deprives its young patrons of the greater part of the stimulation and later satisfaction that should be offered them. The conservative nature of traditional education is exemplified in the conventional museum — the accumulated treasures of the past are there conserved, preserved, displayed. The emphasis is altogether on work completed, consummated. The past is there, and in a much lesser degree, the present, but it is as though nobody had any concern for the future.

This emphasis on finished things, perfection displayed in a great variety of forms, is no great boon to the creative spirit. It is more likely to be deadening. The best it allows is the suggestion that these objects may be imitated or reproduced.

Perhaps the worst is achieved when classes of school children are herded into the museum to sketch — to copy the figures on a Chinese vase or the pattern of some old brocade. The children draw industriously, receive official approval, and then go home to do the things that for them have some relation to their individual purposes. Vases and brocades are important to curators, to art teachers, to supervisors, to designers, but they are junk to a child who sees in them for him no particular purpose or no particular use.

The new museum will keep a firm hold on its treasures, yet organize them in such a way that they will act as signposts, not tombstones. It will require new techniques. It will demand creative intelligence. The past can be embalmed, but the future is not so easily preserved for exhibition. It can be captured best by a larger emphasis on the living world, especially social institutions, which are not the same yesterday, today and forever. The future can be read in the creations of children, for the future will be no more worthy than the children are creative. It is through making that one learns to make.

The new children's museum will contribute to the future when it encourages creative activities by displaying prominently what children have made. The new museum will lend and it will borrow. It will conserve good things from the past, but it will acknowledge the present and emphasize the glories potential in a future designed and created out of the best of the past and the present, added to something better and something new.

Dull Pupils Not Lazy, but Are Confused by Forcing

"Give slow or dull pupils a chance to handle school work which is in keeping with their mental age, do not force them to keep up with average or brilliant pupils, but encourage them to improve in the way that is natural for them. By these means there will be fewer pupils who never get the right education and the mental improvement that they need even more than their brighter brothers and sisters," Prof. Raleigh Schorling, of the University of Michigan school of education declared at the assembly of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, held in Chicago.

"Parents and teachers should not assume that the dull pupil is necessarily a lazy one," Professor Schorling stated. "Often the evidence of laziness disappears if the pupil is given a task that he can do, or which he feels is worth doing. It is really pathetic to see the efforts that dull pupils put forth in order to achieve some measure of success or approval when their work is organized so as to allow them to take it in short, interesting steps.

"Giving the slow pupil a larger proportion of vocational and industrial arts courses, on the theory that these are easier subjects, does not solve the problem," Professor Schorling said. "Shop teachers have the same trouble in teaching dull pupils unless their teaching methods are adjusted and organized in the way in which slow children learn. In fact, there is no evidence that dull pupils put in their hours in many shops to any better advantage than they do in social studies, mathematics or science."

A Proposed Criterion for Evaluating State School Laws

What matters of school organization and administration should be included in state school legislation? How minutely detailed should they be worked out in the law? Mr. Caulkins, who is extensively experienced in school administration in outlying territories of the United States, submits answers to these questions

By GLENN W. CAULKINS
Member, American Education Commission to Peru

A REVIEW of state school laws reveals a wide variety of practice in determining the subject matter of school legislation. Obviously a course of study which is in a constant state of change and which varies in the different communities of a state should not be subject to statutory enactment. There is no difference of opinion on this point. Nevertheless, state school laws are cluttered up with details of organization and administration covering phases of work that are almost as susceptible to change as is the course of study.

Two extreme cases may be cited. Public school systems were established in the Philippine Islands and in Puerto Rico in the early days of the American occupation and legislation was enacted providing for the organization and administration of the schools. The Puerto Rican law was written in detail, after the manner of state school laws in the United States, while the Philippine law was brief, covering only three or four pages. The carrying out of the laws in these two countries—virgin educational territory where the whole structure had to be built from the ground up—was a practical demonstration of the advisability of including only barest essentials in school legislation.

Why Minute Details Were Put Into Codes

The majority of our state school laws evolved into their present unwieldy proportions during the formative period of our school systems. It was therefore thought essential by the legislatures that minute details of administration should be incorporated into the rigid school codes. Without an effective state school administration there seemed to be no way to make these details of administration operative without including them in the law itself. In recent years these rigid cumbersome codes have been a serious obstacle in the way of improving the effectiveness of the state school organization.

A philosophy of school legislation as applied to state administration has been slow in developing. Criteria for evaluating the probable effectiveness of proposed school legislation have not been established, or at least they have not found a place in current educational literature or in textbooks on school administration, however clear the problem may be in the minds of state officials who are responsible for initiating school legislation.

Obviously the criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of school legislation in a state which has a responsible board of education and a commissioner of education selected for outstanding ability in school administration would not be valid in a state where the school administration is decentralized.

The proposed criterion therefore will be applicable only in states having (1) a responsible board of education, preferably a lay board appointed by the governor and (2) a commissioner of education who is the executive officer of the board and preferably selected by the board.

The chief factors in setting up an effective school administration are:

1. The state constitution, which establishes the objectives and empowers the legislature to enact such laws as may be necessary to achieve those objectives.

2. The legislature, which enacts an organic school law, and subsequent school legislation that sets up the machinery and outlines the procedure for achieving the objectives established by the constitution. The more progressive states make provision for a state board of education (a lay board in the majority of the states) to which is delegated

wide authority to determine policies and to establish rules and regulations for managing the state public school system. A commissioner of education is the executive officer of the board.

What, then, should be included in the state school law? And what authority should be given to the state board of education?

A school system is a growing institution, subject to constant changes to meet the demands of changing conditions. Theories of education are in a state of evolution. New types of schools develop. Patrons continually make new demands upon the schools. Problems of consolidation and transportation arise. New standards of achievement have to be met. There are higher and altered standards for the certification of teachers. New problems and demands have to be met in all phases of educational activity.

Law Should Deal With Permanent Matters

Practically all of the foregoing are questions of administration rather than of legislation. The organic school law of a state, then, should concern itself primarily with those matters of school organization and policy that are reasonably permanent. All other matters, so far as state administration is concerned, should come within the province of the board of education or within limits prescribed by law or by determined policy of the board or by established precedent of the commissioner of education. It should be the duty of the board of education to adopt a school code or rules and regulations covering all matters not directly or fully treated in the organic law.

We would have, then, (1) the organic school law enacted by the state legislature and (2) the school code or rules and regulations adopted by the board. The law would be rigid and inflexible and the procedure of having it amended by action of the legislature would be a more or less tedious one. The school code or rules and regulations, embracing all matters that may be in a more or less constant state of change, could easily and quickly be altered by the board as the need arises.

The proposed criterion for evaluating a school law in a state having a responsible board of education and a commissioner of education is as follows: A state school law should concern itself primarily with matters of school organization and policy that are reasonably permanent.

It is understood that there will be other criteria for evaluating the school laws (especially the laws concerning school revenue and other matters that clearly come within the province of the legislature) and these criteria, in some instances, will conflict with the one proposed. A school law should conform to all criteria that have been established, but for the moment we are concerned only with the one proposed.

The constitution of the state of Washington makes the following provision for a public school system:

"It is the paramount duty of the state to make ample provision for the education of all children residing within its borders, without distinction or preference on account of race, color, caste or sex.

"The legislature shall provide for a general and uniform system of public schools. The public school system shall include common schools, and such high schools, normal schools and technical schools as may hereafter be established."

Here we have (1) a statement of the objectives set up by the constitution and (2) authority and the obligation conferred upon the legislature to enact such legislation as may be needed to achieve the objectives.

The state school law makes provision for a state board of education, largely an ex officio board rather than an appointed lay board. The state superintendent of public instruction is elected by the people of the state at the time of the general election, rather than being appointed by the board. While the methods of selecting the board of education and the state superintendent do not conform strictly to the bases upon which the proposed criterion is premised, they approximate the requirements closely enough to make the criterion valid for evaluating the state school laws.

Now let us apply the criterion to the school laws of the state of Washington.

Evaluating Washington's School Laws

All sections of the law which meet the requirements of the criterion or to which the criterion is not applicable are omitted from the discussion. Only those sections of the law which do not meet the requirements of the criterion are considered.

Sections 290 to 306, inclusive. These sections of the law cover the certification of teachers. Factors that determine the certification of teachers change. Eligibility standards, including the amount of general and professional training required, are constantly raised. New types of schools evolve and reclassifications of schools are made affecting the certification of teachers. The entire article of the school law relating to teacher certification should be repealed and the state board of education should be empowered by the legislature to handle the matter of certification.

Sections 365 to 368, inclusive. These sections refer to the state grammar school examinations. Bases for determining the promotion of pupils change. This entire article of the school law should be repealed and the state board of education should

be empowered to determine the bases for the promotion of pupils.

Sections 402 to 409, inclusive. These sections cover the method of selecting textbooks. Methods of selecting and adopting textbooks quickly become obsolete. A casual reading of the sections previously referred to will establish this fact. The law has become so out of date that it is ignored. The entire article relating to textbooks should be repealed and the legislature should empower the state board of education to adopt rules and regulations governing the selection and adoption of textbooks.

Sections 443 to 452, inclusive. These sections refer to teachers' institutes. Facilities for teacher training are constantly improving. A rigid law governing teachers' institutes quickly becomes out of date. The entire article relating to teachers' institutes should be repealed and the legislature should empower the state board of education to adopt regulations for institutes and other measures for the in-service professional training of teachers.

Other Criteria Are Needed

The 1933 school legislation in the state of Washington conforms to the proposed criterion, and also partially corrects some of the provisions of the law previously listed, especially with reference to teacher certification and examinations for the promotion of pupils.

It would be worth while to set up other criteria for evaluating school laws, covering all phases of school organization and administration, including school finance and tax equalization measures; extension of educational opportunity; consolidation; transportation; units of school administration; school buildings and equipment; health and physical education, and so on.

Subjecting school laws to close scrutiny in order to determine how nearly they approximate the best standards that can be established should have a salutary effect upon school legislation. It would tend to clarify the question in the minds of school men and legislators. It should eventually bring about greater simplicity in school codes, and it should be helpful in formulating new legislation. It would have a tendency to determine just what matters should be included in the law itself and those that should come within the province of the state board of education.

The literature on school administration is concerned with the set-up of the administrative machinery rather than with the legislation creating it. An exception is Cubberley's "State and County Educational Reorganization," which contains an article on education as formulated for the constitution, together with the school code for the hypothetical state of Osceola. Without doubt this volume has helped to clarify thinking in regard to school legislation during the last two decades. Much of the detail found in the present school laws in many states has been omitted from the code. Twelve pages are devoted to the article on education in the constitution and 198 pages to the school code. If the foregoing criteria were applied to the Osceola Code it would be considerably reduced in size.

Eleven pages of the law are given to the details of the organization of the state education department—eight pages to the divisions of the department alone. The law provides for seventeen departments (not sixteen or eighteen, but seventeen) with the further provision that the state board may create other divisions from time to time. The functions of each of the seventeen divisions are stated. This cannot be altered, except by creating more divisions, without action by the legislature.

Twenty-five pages are devoted to the law respecting certification of teachers. Provision is made for ten classes of certificates, with permanent and temporary certificates for each of the ten classes, in addition to certificates for librarians, health officers and school janitors, and city-district professional examinations. For example, elementary school certificates are granted to graduates of secondary schools who pass an examination in academic and professional subjects. This could be changed only by an act of the legislature.

Portions Are Already Obsolete

Six pages are devoted to the law for the training of teachers in service. It provides minute details for reading circles (four pages) and for various kinds of teachers' professional meetings and institutes, including county institutes of from three to ten days. No mention is made of other methods for the in-service training of teachers.

These portions of the Osceola School Code, written by our foremost authority on school administration, are out of date in less than twenty years—some evidence at least that they should not have been included in the law in the first place, but that the law should have empowered the state board (admirably provided for) to handle the matters treated in those sections.

If the school code of the state of Osceola were rewritten as the organic law, greatly reduced in size, and if a third section were added to the contents of the volume—a section of rules and regulations (or school code) adopted by the board of education of Osceola, including the suppressed sections of the law brought up to date—I predict that it would be even more useful than it has been in the past.

Something Can Be Done About the Common Cold

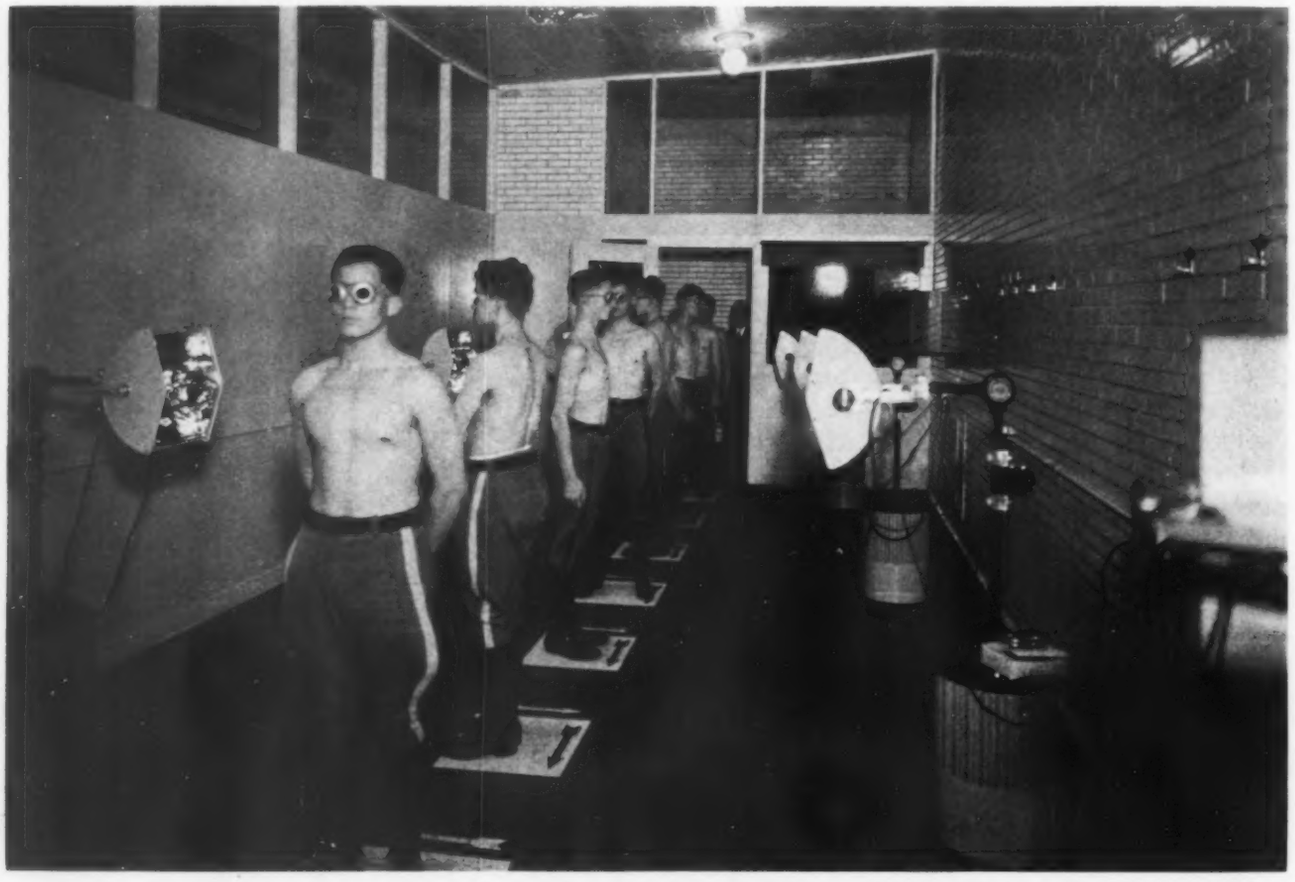
By PAUL A. CAMPBELL, M.D.
Chief of Medical Staff, Culver Military Academy, Culver, Ind.

SINCE a great part of lost class time and classroom inefficiency is due to some manifestation of upper respiratory infections, attempts are constantly being made to find some remedy for the situation.

Almost four years ago a study of the various factors that might cause or lead to the onset of a cold or epidemic of colds was undertaken at Culver Military Academy. At first a record in the nature of a log was kept with daily entries of weather conditions, including barometric pressure, relative humidity, mean temperature and type of weather. Beside them were notations of activities such as occasional fatiguing drills, examinations, trips by the cadet corps or visits by outside groups. This list was compared with notes on those reporting to the health department for treatment. The importance of the study was soon evident and a more comprehensive investigation was instituted.

Although this study is still in its infancy, the analysis has led to many interesting conclusions, all of which undoubtedly have been previously observed. But since living conditions at Culver are controlled and since all cases of illness are sent to one staff, we feel that these observations are more valuable than the usual compilation of cold statistics. Some of the results of the study are in agreement with accepted opinions of the causative factors of common colds while others disagree.

It has long been felt by many investigators that



Cadets enter the solarium and stop on the designated square, face in the direction of the arrow and remain there until an automatic interval timer rings a bell, then they move on through the solarium.

upper respiratory infections, including the so-called common cold, sore throat, sinus infections, grippe or influenzal infections and pneumonia, are caused by several coincidental factors. The first and most important is believed to be a bacterium or virus or possibly several of them. The second factor is lowered resistance in an individual, which causes the host to become receptive to the first factor. The term "resistance," of course, covers a multitude of conditions. Of some of these we have specific knowledge and of others we know little. However, the state of nutrition, the efficiency of the process of elimination plus the presence or absence of antibodies or other immunizing substances in the blood or tissues, mental and physical fatigue, improper or unbalanced diet, the presence or absence of certain vitamins and chemicals and the sudden disruption of the action of the thermal regulation mechanism of the body must all be considered.

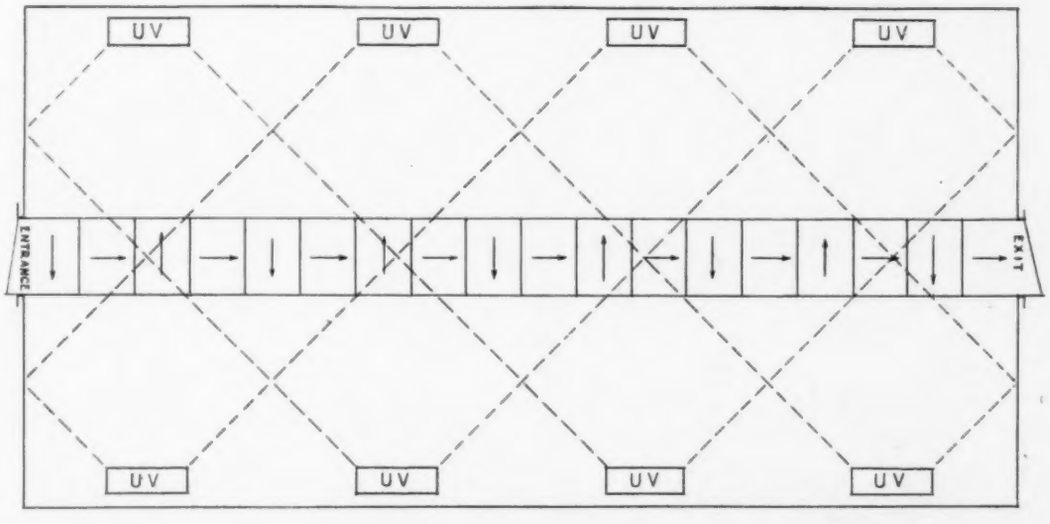
When the first factor, the bacteria, occurs coincidental to the second factor, lowered resistance in an individual, some manifestation of the common cold may result. It is therefore evident that the problem of treating colds resolved itself into determining what in our situation composes the factors and working out a method to prevent either condition from occurring or at least to prevent the two from appearing simultaneously.

To do away with the bacteria or virus is of course practically impossible as many persons are constantly acting as carriers and consequently may spread the organism at any time. However, keeping the carriers, persons with colds and cold-contaminated articles, from contacting uninfected persons, undoubtedly will help greatly in the solution of this phase.

In our situation this is accomplished to some extent at least by prompt isolation of all colds, especially in the earlier part of the school year. It is not so important later in the session, as continual contact seemingly brings about an immunity in the individual for those conditions that may be present in the group. Second, visitors who are indisposed in any way are asked not to come in contact with the student body. Third, through the use of the questionnaire, we attempt to learn of cold susceptibles and place them in a special group to be watched and treated carefully. Fourth, as the swimming pool may be a productive source of infection, it is constantly watched by a member of the medical staff and through treatment of the water, it is kept as nearly free from bacteria as possible.

Doctor Campbell studying cold graphs in his office.

The fifth point of attack is careful supervision in handling the mess hall. All utensils are completely sterilized after each meal. As a second check, the dishes and silver of each table unit are kept separate from other table units. These uten-



Floor plan of solarium showing pathway of squares with arrows indicating the direction cadets take as they pass through. UV represents position of ultraviolet lamps.

sils are washed by the waiter of the table in a unit cupboard where they do not come in contact with the dishes of any other table.

Thus, we attempt to keep the individual as free as possible from the causative organisms or virus that may produce colds. The second factor, that of maintaining the resistance of the individual, is possibly more difficult than that of keeping the organisms away.

From our study it was noted that changes in weather did not play such a striking part in cold incidence as we had formerly supposed (Fig. 1). There was evidence, however, that there was a slow increase in the number of colds beginning in November and reaching a peak in February, decreasing until the middle of April.

The curve, so established, corresponds to a slightly delayed inverted curve of the concentration of the sun's rays in this latitude. Consequently an attempt was made to replace the important elements of sunlight. In order to do this, a solarium consisting of a battery of mercury arc ultraviolet lamps was installed. The lamps were so arranged that cadets could receive irradiation rapidly. As soon as this plan was inaugurated, the entire group was sent through once a week during the dark months. Also those who, either as a result of the questionnaire or from experience, were classified in the group of cold susceptibles were placed in special "cold" classes and sent through the solarium more often.

A member of the medical staff is always present during these irradiations. This makes it possible for him to survey all the cadets once a week. Should there be any evidence of disease which has not come to our attention before, it is usually noted at the time of the irradiation.

The solarium has now been in operation over a period of two years. During the first year there was a drop of 26 per cent in the average cold incidence as compared with the two or three preceding years. This decrease in proportion has been equaled during the past year. Even more striking has been our experience with the group of cold susceptibles who have had solarium treatment more often. The time lost by this group of cadets was decreased 38 per cent the first year, and last year the record was equally favorable as is shown in Fig. 2.

Fatigue is, according to our study, the second great enemy of resistance. The curve on numerous occasions demonstrated the importance of this ele-

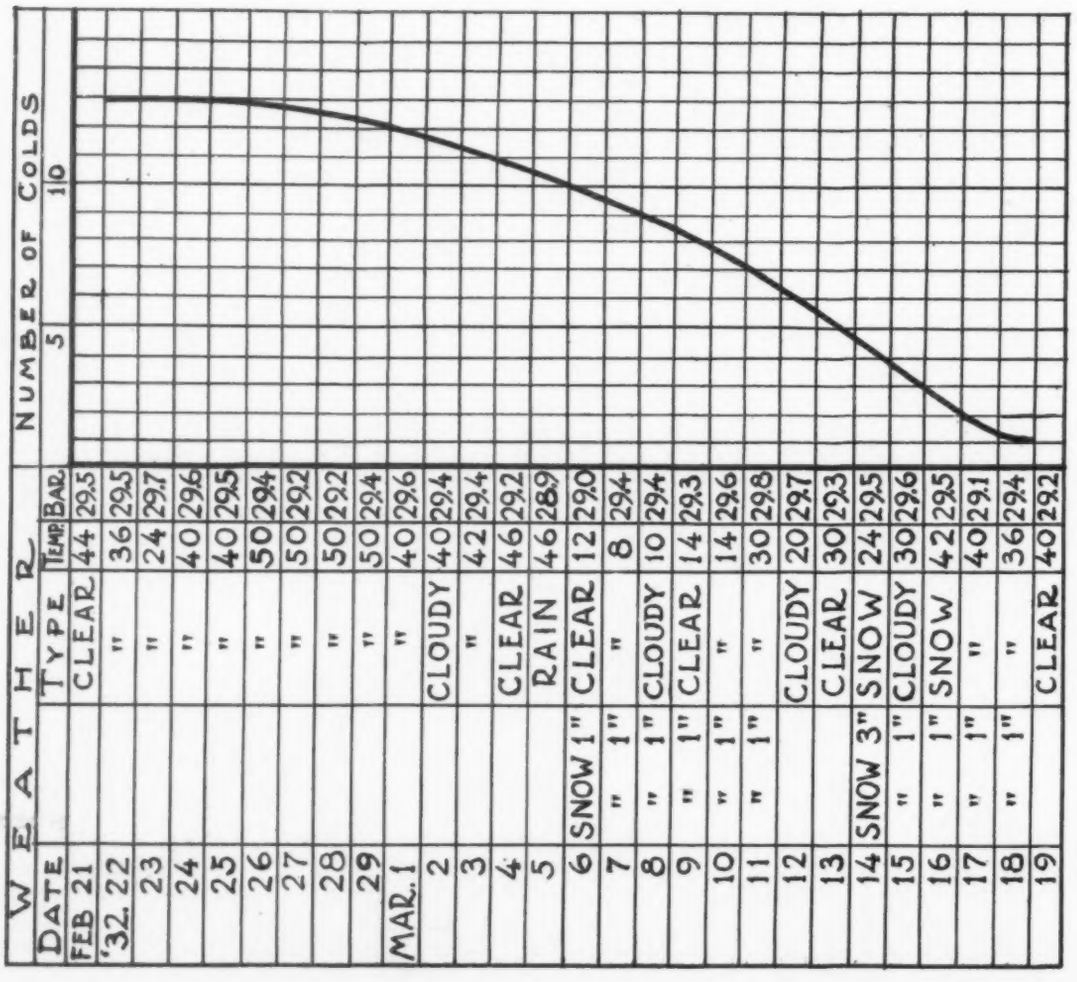


Fig. 1. This drawing illustrates a rather decided drop in cold incidence in spite of the fact that the weather, as indicated by the figures below the graph, grew progressively worse. However, the concentration of the actinic rays of the sun became greater and greater during the period.

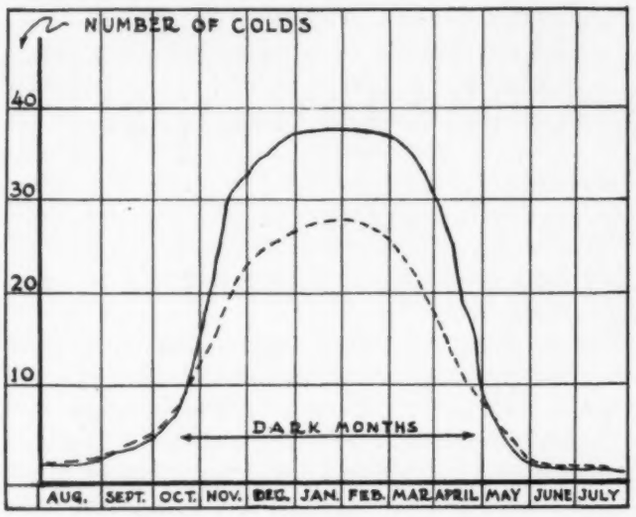


Fig. 2. This chart represents the cold incidence (solid line) for the year August, 1931, to July, 1932. The dotted line shows the cold incidence of 1932-33 and the consequent decrease experienced when the solarium was used to replace the actinic rays of the sun. This curve also demonstrates the prevalence of colds during the dark months.

ment. Subject matter examinations were usually followed by an outbreak or increase in colds. All fatiguing routine or periods in which sleeping time was shortened or interrupted also caused an increase in colds. After investigation, this portion of the curve was flattened out by anticipation of factors that might cause mental or physical exertion and an immediate rest or sleep period was placed in the schedule to balance or compensate.

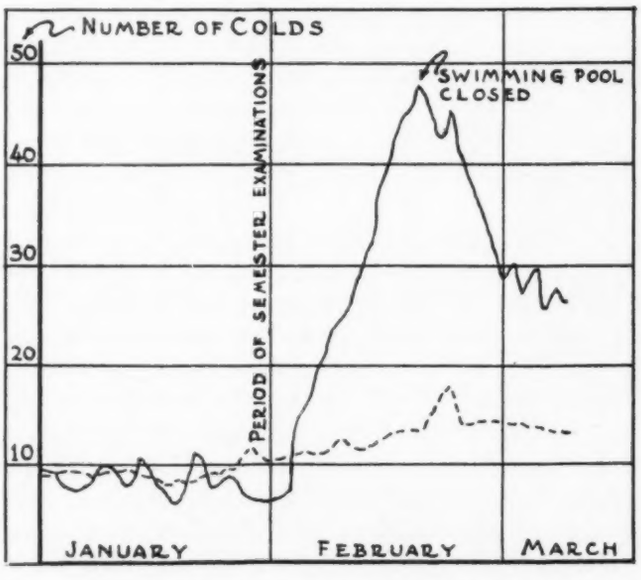


Fig. 3. The solid line indicates the increase in cold incidence following the periods of examination showing the factor fatigue plays in cold production. At the peak of the curve, the swimming pool was closed to stop dissemination of colds through that medium. The results are obvious. The broken line represents the same condition the following year, but the curve was flattened out by giving rests and long sleep periods directly after examinations.

The satisfactory results from this procedure cannot to be questioned (Fig. 3).

Through supervision of the diet, it has been possible to increase the vitamin content during the periods of cold prevalence. Usually this has consisted of an increase in fresh vegetables, fruits and milk. A group in which it has been quite apparent that a vitamin deficiency exists has been given cod liver oil or its equivalent as needed.

Through courses in hygiene and through short articles appearing from time to time in the academy paper, the individual's care of himself has

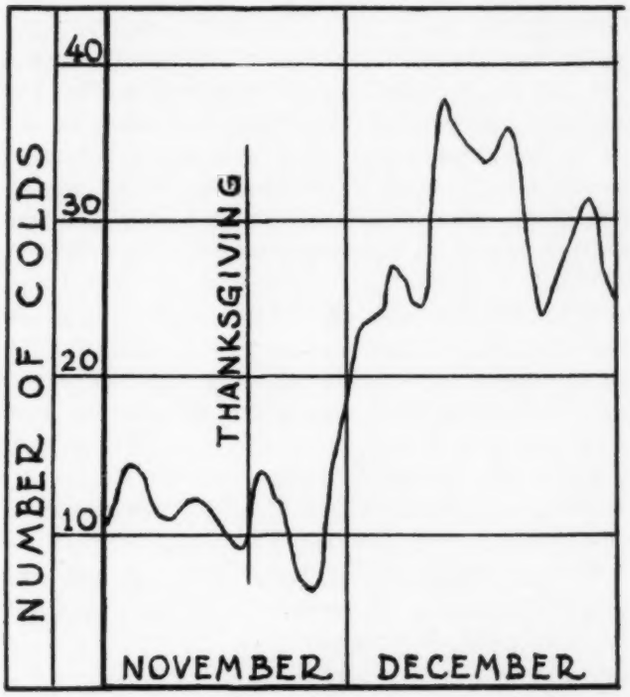


Fig. 4. This chart illustrates a direct rise in the cold curve at Thanksgiving resulting from contact with cold germs brought in by guests, to which the cadets did not have a definite immunity.

been emphasized in order that he might be taught to watch his elimination, diet and clothing.

As an experiment during the last academic year, we have air conditioned one of the barracks and are studying the influence that air conditioning may have upon cold incidence. Our study has not yet been completed but the value of such a procedure as a cold preventive is apparent.

Possibly when the common cold is properly classified as a serious ailment, when it is treated with the same respect as scarlet fever and diphtheria, perhaps even isolated and quarantined as these conditions are, a disease that has been one of our greatest economic parasites will slowly pass out of existence. Our study and comparison of recent statistics with those of a period ten years ago have led us to believe that there is a definite solution to the problem.

Public Relations and the Principal

By A. D. MUELLER
Professor of Secondary Education, University of Tennessee

THE modern high school principal has a three-in-one job — administration, supervision and community relations. Upon him rests the responsibility for community leadership.

"The principal's success or failure depends in large degree on his activities in his community," Cody says. "Indeed, the way in which he conducts the community relations of his school is often the decisive factor which determines whether or not he is considered successful. During my years in school work, I have known a great many principals; I cannot think of a single successful one who did not maintain good contacts with the community."

What are the means and agencies for establishing good school and community relations? The chief means are (1) the principal's personal contacts with community leaders; (2) business, professional and social contacts; (3) the parent-teacher association; (4) the board of education; (5) home contacts; (6) community center activities, and (7) the alumni association.

The chief agencies that the principal may employ in informing his community of his school and its educational program are (1) pupils and teachers; (2) the newspaper and school publications; (3) speeches, lectures and radio; (4) school exhibits, demonstrations and fairs, and (5) special occasions and "weeks."

The alert principal will find no dearth of means and agencies for keeping his community informed about the work and activities of his school. He will also find ample means for establishing exceedingly desirable contacts between his school and the community

Let us now consider these means and agencies briefly. Mention has already been made of the importance, to the principal, of studying his community in order to determine the various divisions or groupings, with the end in view of discovering which contacts not to make. The principal should just as diligently study his community to discover what contacts he should make.

Every community has its outstanding leaders, men and women who set the pace in community actions and attitudes. The principal should by all means seek to develop a friendship with these leaders in the community and he should strive to win their confidence and interest in his program of education.

Every principal should welcome the opportunity to belong to a business and professional men's club in his community. Here he meets business and professional leaders who are also the leaders in community undertakings and enterprises, of which education is among the foremost. Editorial comment on service clubs in the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals runs as follows:

"An argument commonly brought against participation in local business and professional associations is 'The principal belongs in his school every minute that it is in session. Luncheon appointments usually mean that the principal misses from a half hour to an hour of school time.' Such an argument was thoroughly sound up to 1860 when most 'schoolmasters' had full-time teaching duties. The contention had less basis between 1860 and 1920 when many principals devoted full-time to administrative responsibilities. Today that argument is obsolete. The modern principal is an educator in the fullest sense of the word, and no longer merely serves time in a daily routine."

The same committee further states: "It is obvious that participation in service organizations can bring several benefits to the school and to the principal: (1) it provides a group of citizens who are eager to eliminate suffering among children, (2) it brings the school in contact with groups where a positive program of child development exists, (3) it fosters a general interest in children and education, (4) it provides the principal with an organized outlet for a program of school interpretation, (5) it brings the principal in contact with viewpoints and needs of the community and (6) it helps the principal to broaden his social, economic and educational philosophy."

The parent-teacher association is potentially the principal's strongest ally. "At its best," says Ellen

C. Lombard, "it is an excellent vehicle through which parents may get a better understanding of the problems of their children, of preschool, grade school and high school age; through which the school may be interpreted, and through which the community may be informed of the needs, problems, and program of the school." It is true that too often emphasis in parent-teacher association work has been placed on the material aspects of education. Associations have been used as a means of securing books, stereopticon machines, mimeograph machines, playground apparatus and cafeterias with little or no attention being given to the study of children or to the improvement of the individual members.

Material Aid Should Be Limited

The national program indicates that there is a growing tendency toward the educational aspects of P.-T. A. work and less upon money raising activities. Leaders in the movement are agreed that "the material aid to the school should be limited to (1) demonstrations of new and untried school activities which have been approved by the school board but which the board is not yet prepared to finance, (2) improvement of the cultural atmosphere and comfort of the school and (3) emergencies that sometimes arise and call for assistance from the community in order that the work of the school may not be interrupted or seriously handicapped."

The local program should be balanced between giving help, studying children and receiving information and inspiration.

With reference to the principal's relations with the board of education, he should make every effort to maintain the confidence of the members of the board. He should cultivate their friendship insofar as this can be done in a natural and unobtrusive manner. The attitudes and interests of board members toward special phases of education should be ascertained. Such matters as attitude toward school costs, progressive educational outlook, ideas regarding special work being done in the school, standards of scholarship, superior teachers and the like should be discovered so that the principal may know where to begin and how to direct his educational program. It will also help him to determine how fast he may expect them to advance with him. The principal or superintendent can expect cooperation from the board only to the extent that he informs them and keeps them informed about his plans and policies.

Board members are in key positions when it comes to establishing good relations between the school and the community. A well informed board member can do much to inform members of the community about school matters. School patrons are less hesitant in expressing their views or voicing their criticisms about school matters to members of the board than to the principal or superintendent. A well informed board member makes a well informed patron, well informed patrons make a well informed community, and a well informed community will appreciate the value of a good school and will cooperate with the principal in getting one. The value of a well informed community to the school may be inferred from the statement attributed to Elbert Hubbard that "The people who are not up on a thing are usually down on it."

Good school and community relations cannot be built up on an impersonal basis. The principal and his teachers must know the members of the school community personally. The "personal touch" is recognized as an important element in business and commercial relations. Educators are recognizing the need of a closer relationship between the school and the home. Contacts between the school and the home are not one-sided. It is often more important to give the parents information than it is to obtain facts about home conditions. Home contacts tend to break down barriers and to build ties. Misapprehensions and misunderstandings are corrected and the way is paved for cooperation, trust and confidence. Often the inarticulation between the school and the home is due to false impressions gained by adults from secondary sources.

For the people of the community to know the principal and the teachers personally and to discover that they, too, are but human beings is one of the best means for establishing closer school and community relations. Many an indifferent or potentially antagonistic parent has been won to the cause of the school by means of the home contact.

School Must Serve the Entire Community

We have heard much during the past decade or so about the wider use of the school plant, the school as the community center, the enrichment of adult life, adult education, the school as a recreational center or social center, and the like, all of which indicate a growing consciousness on the part of progressive thinkers everywhere that the school does not exist merely for the benefit of the immature of the community who attend it during a few hours of the day, but that in addition to these it must serve the masses of the people of the community at all times and in various ways. The principal who wishes to establish closer relations between his school and the community will do well to study conditions in his community to find out how his school may serve the social, recreational,

emotional and intellectual needs of all the people.

High school alumni associations afford a means of reaching a small but interested group of people in every high school community. Alumni are able to keep in touch with their school and to keep informed of its progress. At alumni meetings the principal is given an opportunity to present the achievements of the school in the past, to call attention to the work of the school at present, and to give plans for the future. Perhaps the greatest value of alumni meetings is the emotional element accompanying them. Renewed friendships, reminiscences of old times, comparing notes, the return of the alumnus who "made good" in the world, and so on, tend to create a sentiment for the school, not only in the hearts of the graduates themselves, but also in the hearts of many members of the community only remotely connected with the school.

Pupils and Teachers Are Best Publicity Agency

The foregoing, briefly, are some of the outstanding means for establishing good relations between the school and the community. Now let us consider further some of the most important agencies that the principal may use in informing his community about the school and its educational program. The most important publicity agency that any school possesses lies in its pupils and teaching staff. Parents' opinions regarding the high school are formed for the most part on the basis of information brought home by their children.

"Every pupil entertains opinions that are certain to crop out in his conversation about his teachers, the principal, the control of the school, the methods of teaching, the student activities and other phases or incidents of school life," according to Douglass. It is highly important, therefore, that the principal make an effort to build up confidence, respect and good will toward the school and its staff. Extracurricular activities play a considerable part in this. But the principal should be careful to have a well balanced program of extracurricular activities. Athletics, though important, must be but one avenue for building school spirit.

Confidence in the work of the school and its program is built up through efficient, scholarly, dignified, yet friendly and sympathetic teachers and a principal who possesses a broad understanding of adolescent boys and girls and the ability to lead them.

The newspaper and the school paper perhaps rank second in importance as agencies for informing the public about the schools. The wise principal will cultivate the friendship of local newspapermen. They will give much valuable space for school news and in many instances they will be in a position to inform the principal about community attitudes with regard to school affairs. The fact that the newspaper is read in almost every home in the community and that almost everything appearing in it is taken at face value gives some indication of the importance of this agency for school publicity. The principal should make a definite effort to use this means of informing the public about the school.

School Paper Develops Loyalty

The school paper possesses some of the values of the newspaper as an agency for creating an interest in the work of the school. Its value as an agency for developing school loyalty and school spirit is one of its special advantages. The fact that it is read by all the pupils and goes into the homes of all the pupils makes it a valuable agency for informing pupils and parents about school procedures, methods and policies.

It is obvious that a desirable agency for informing the public about the schools is the talk or address by the principal to groups or organizations in the community. In the larger communities the radio is an excellent agency for school publicity.

Other agencies that have proved effective in creating an interest in the high school and its work are school exhibits, demonstrations of school activities, contests, school fairs, pageants, celebrations, entertainments, plays, orchestra, band, glee club, athletics, visiting days and special occasions and weeks.

The modern progressive school principal cannot ignore the fact that the public is entitled to, and wants to know, the facts about the schools. If he fails to establish good community relations and fails to keep his people informed his administration is doomed.

Superior Intelligence May Handicap the Child

While gifted children as a rule succeed in school and rarely appear in juvenile courts, they are found among the cases of child guidance clinics six times as frequently as their proportion among children in general would lead one to expect, according to Prof. Harvey W. Zorbaugh, director of the clinic for gifted children at New York University.

"Gifted children have more difficulty in making life adjustments than do average children," says Professor Zorbaugh. "Many of the problems of gifted children seem to arise from the fact that they do not adjust well to the typical public school situation. Yet of the 1,500,000 gifted children discovered by the White House Conference, less than 4,000 were having special educational opportunities. The conservation of gifted children is a pressing social problem."

Gubernatorial Guidance in State Textbook Adoption

The case of Kentucky, here described by Mr. Henry, affords a mass of evidence that demonstrates the difficulty of securing a consideration on the basis of merit when any selecting agency controls the choice of school books to be used on a statewide basis

By NELSON B. HENRY
Associate Professor of Education, University of Chicago

THE 1926 legislative assembly in Kentucky created a state textbook commission of twelve members with power to adopt uniform series of textbooks for use in the elementary and secondary schools of the state. The governor and the state superintendent of public instruction were made members ex officio and designated as chairman and secretary, respectively.

All other members were to be named by the governor, but it was stipulated that a representative of the faculty of each of three state educational institutions should be included in the appointments made. The governor was allowed full freedom of selection in naming the other seven members of the commission, except that not less than one or more than two of the ten appointive members should reside in any given electoral district for judges of the court of appeals. Also, such appointments are subject to the approval of the senate.

Appointment of the First Commission

The act creating this textbook commission specified that the first appointments should be made in April, 1926, five of the appointed members to serve for four years and five for two years. Subsequent appointments should be for four-year terms. As finally passed, the law became effective in June, 1926, two months later than the date specified as the beginning of the terms of the first appointees.

The governor did not make the appointments until April, 1927, and in this action an error was made in that the ten members were all appointed for four-year terms. This was corrected in an executive order of December 12, 1927, revoking five of the appointments and reappointing the same persons for two-year terms. This occurred just at the close of the governor's term of office, and the appointments he had made were never submitted to the senate. The law specified that the commission should consider textbook adoptions at its meeting "on the first Monday in October, 1928, and every second year thereafter. . . ." The new commission was directed to meet in January, 1929, to consider the adoption or readoption of books and to have printed a complete list of adopted books by the first day of June.

Legislative action establishing a commission of twelve members for such public service as selecting textbooks for use in a state school system seems to imply that this is a type of service that may not appropriately be assigned to any individual or to elected officials, as the governor or the state superintendent of public instruction. Further happenings in connection with the ensuing state textbook adoptions in Kentucky constitute an illuminating chapter in the history of state adoptions with respect particularly to the politician's interpretation of the functions of a state textbook commission. They also add weight to the oft repeated argument that state adoption contracts are inevitably a matter of political concern.

In this instance the new governor could not leave the consideration of textbooks for the state school system in the hands of appointees of his predecessor because, as he stated in a public address, "Whatever the results from the action of the textbook commission, especially if not good, will be charged to me as governor, and I will and should be held responsible to the people for whatever may happen in this regard. Therefore, the textbook commission acts should be known to be (in accord) with the policies which I have advocated . . . and which formed no unimportant part of the campaign issues."

Accordingly, this governor issued an executive order on August 31, 1928, removing from office all but one of the ten commissioners appointed by his predecessor. On September 12 an order was issued appointing nine new members of the commission.

This action was protested by the officials and division leaders of the Kentucky Educational Association and in numerous press reports and editorials. It was the subject of litigation for months, different opinions being finally superseded by the decision of the court of appeals on October 12, 1928, in which it was held that the appointments of the present executive were valid. The nine appointive members of the first commission who were displaced were not at any time officially active in connection with textbook adoptions.

The Governor Explains His Motives

The governor's concern lest the acts of the textbook commission might not be entirely in harmony with his own ideals extended also to the appointments he had made. In order to safeguard the interests of the schools absolutely, he secured the resignation of his appointees at the time the appointments were made. This extraordinary precaution is best explained in the governor's own statement of his motives, as presented in affidavit form. The statement follows:

"I had heard something of the ramifications set up by publishing houses throughout the state, but not confined to this state, in which connections were made or might be made by those publishing houses either with members of the families or who were intimate friends of members of the commission, with the supposed purpose of thereby getting a more favorable consideration of their publications than the publications might merit in the opinions of strictly impartial commissioners. To guard against the possibility of such connections being made, or even of the appearance of evil therefrom a question arose in my mind how I could safeguard the commission against such sinister influence, if there should be such.

"It was not enough in my judgment that the participants might be found out and punished afterward; I wanted to be able to avoid their inflicting any injustice or injury upon the schools and the school children and patrons of Kentucky by having unworthy books or [illegible]v books adopted or at prices that were exorbita[illegible]. There was doubt in my mind as to the power of the governor to remove a commissioner when once appointed. So I felt that if I required appointees to hand in their resignations I could hold and could use same so as to remove them in the event I should discover any sinister influence operating against the best interest of the state, any such cause as I have mentioned in any of their cases."

The chief executive's sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the schools as affected by the adoption of textbooks is given additional emphasis in reports of the deliberations and actions of the commission over which he presided. In an open letter to school superintendents in the state, dated March 23, 1929, the state superintendent declared that most of the meetings of the commission were of short duration, and that it early became "apparent that the purpose of the chairman was to have the bulk of the work done outside of official meetings." Although designated as secretary of the commission by act of the legislature, the state superintendent was refused permission to provide for a stenographic report of the proceedings of the meetings and was not invited to attend the "numerous unofficial meetings and caucuses held by the commission."

The 1926 law specified that at the first adoption in 1929 not more than 20 per cent of the basal texts then in use in the elementary and secondary schools should be changed. The remaining 80 per cent, if satisfactory bids were received, should be readopted and classified by the commission as subject to change to the extent of 20 per cent of the list in each of four successive adoptions occurring at two-year intervals following the 1929 adoption. This measure, in the language of the law, was designed "to render effective the gradual change herein contemplated." Despite this mandate, the commission at the appointed meeting in January, 1929, rejected all bids and readvertised for a second set of bids on all books to be used in the schools.

Private Negotiations by the Governor

The commission met on March 4 to consider the new bids. Executive sessions were held from day to day, the members being engaged in making up preferred lists of books for the different subjects. At the meeting on March 8 the commission authorized the chairman (governor), in response to his own suggestion, to call representatives of various publishing houses before him, to negotiate for better prices than were submitted in the sealed bids. The secretary's warning that such procedure would be found illegal was unheeded. The official meetings of the commission between March 8 and March 15 are described by the secretary as lasting about twenty minutes each and consisting of the roll call, a statement of the chairman that he was continuing his negotiations for lower book prices, and formal adjournment to 9 a.m. the following day.

Naturally there was widespread protest against the governor's policy of dealing thus privately with the public responsibility devolving upon the commission as a whole. The argument ended with a ruling by the attorney-general that the commission could not accept lower prices from the publishers than the prices named in their sealed bids. Whereupon the commission rejected all bids for a

second time and resolved to readvertise for new bids to be received on April 16.

On the basis of the third set of bids received, the commission during the last week in April announced the adoption of uniform texts for the elementary grades. The *Lexington Herald* of April 27 reported that "not a single basal text in use in the elementary grades in Kentucky last year and during the last five years has been readopted." The high school list, announced a few days later, changed more than 75 per cent of the books being used in high schools outside the cities and practically all of those used in the cities. The "gradual change" prescribed in the statute was disregarded. The adoption was taken to court and was declared to be invalid.

All Bids Rejected Again

Under instructions of the court, the commission advertised for a fourth set of bids to be opened August 10. In this instance the advertisement called for bids on the basis of a 20 per cent new adoption and 80 per cent readoption, as prescribed by the statute and as expressly ordered by the court. While there were several meetings of the commission during the following weeks, there was no decision with respect to textbook selections until November 16. On that date the commission voted to reject all bids and ordered an advertisement for new bids to be received December 5. In calling for the fifth set of bids the commission again repudiated the 80 per cent readoption clause of the textbook law, and threw open the entire list to the competitive offerings of all publishers.

It is not without significance that the November 16 meeting of the commission was called on very short notice. Court testimony shows that a notice was sent to the office of the secretary of the commission at 4 p.m. on the fifteenth, and further that the chairman of the commission had been informed a few hours earlier that the secretary was not in town and that the time of his return was uncertain. The secretary and two other members were not in attendance at this meeting.

The secretary, as state superintendent of public instruction, asked the Franklin Circuit Court to restrain the commission from any adoption on bids thus ordered. The court granted this petition, which ruling was sustained by the court of appeals on January 25, 1930. Thus, a year after the first bids were received and rejected, the *Lexington Herald* declared: "The commission is back where it began. It has accomplished nothing of importance. It has repeatedly found that its actions have been in violation of the law."

From the time the governor first declared his intention to appoint a new commission "in accord with his expressed policies," the selection of textbooks for the use of school children was the most conspicuous center of political interest in the state until a new commission was established.

The agitation was started when the governor announced in a Memorial Day address in 1928 that textbook interests had offered him a slush fund that would elect him to the United States Senate if he would appoint the right kind of textbook commission. A subsequently appointed grand jury took cognizance of this accusation, but press reports of that inquiry indicated that evidence warranting an indictment was not presented.

Throughout the year there was continuous disagreement between the governor and the chief state school officer. The latter publicly charged that the governor had attempted by coercive methods to secure his signature to textbook contracts he had not read, which contracts were subsequently declared to have been erroneously drawn. Both public and political interest in the textbook situation was frequently at white heat. School officials were divided in their opinions, confused about the status of books to be used, and uncertain as to the steps they might take without violating the law. When the last set of bids was due for consideration, an assembly of 250 educators petitioned the commission to take no action of any kind with respect to adoptions and to allow the legislature to find a solution.

Why the Deep Felt Political Interest?

There were frequent charges of graft and of political manipulation. Although promptly acquitted, the governor and several others were actually indicted on a charge of having illegally accepted books as gifts from publishers interested in the pending adoption. In the light of current press comments these happenings may reasonably be assumed to have been stimulated by the maneuvering methods of the commission, the obvious subservience of the majority to the determined policies of the governor, the resolutions in disregard of the law and the mandates of the court, the weird proposals of combinations of books, and especially the persistent effort to bring the entire list of texts into competitive bidding.

The confusion was augmented by the futile effort to institute a free textbook law which was sponsored by the governor but made inoperative by failure of the legislature to set up the necessary appropriations. This, however, was not an adequate explanation of the deep felt political interest in the adoption procedure, nor could it account for the extraordinary actions of the commission or the governor's activity in the dominating position he assumed regarding the choice of books.

Happy To Say—

OF COURSE you are busy, but it is absurd to be busy all the time with secondary things and crudely hoping you'll get them done and then turn to the real life. Tut, tut, too many people make that mistake, dying before they learn how to live. The thing to do is to plan some real living the way you want to—some every day. First thing you know it's a habit. Then people will like to know you.

THE sort of second childhood to prepare for is one that delights in friendships, fun, favorite toys, confidence, trust and being sure of your supper. No sane person sniffs at this.

"CREATIVE composition" seems to fit a candidate for failing in a college admission examination. How do you know this is not the fault of the examination?

ONE of the services the measurer has done education is to show you can't measure something that isn't there.

CLIMBING on the shoulders of the past in order to see farther ahead is a big thing for a school man to do and to recommend. But climb on safe shoulders. Some studies the high schools recommend for this purpose are not shoulders at all, but holes in the ground.

YOU can keep the world as bright as it was to you as a child if you seek the beauty of stars, clouds, hills, plains and flowers.

THE aim of business is profit in dollars. The goal of teaching is profitable scholars.

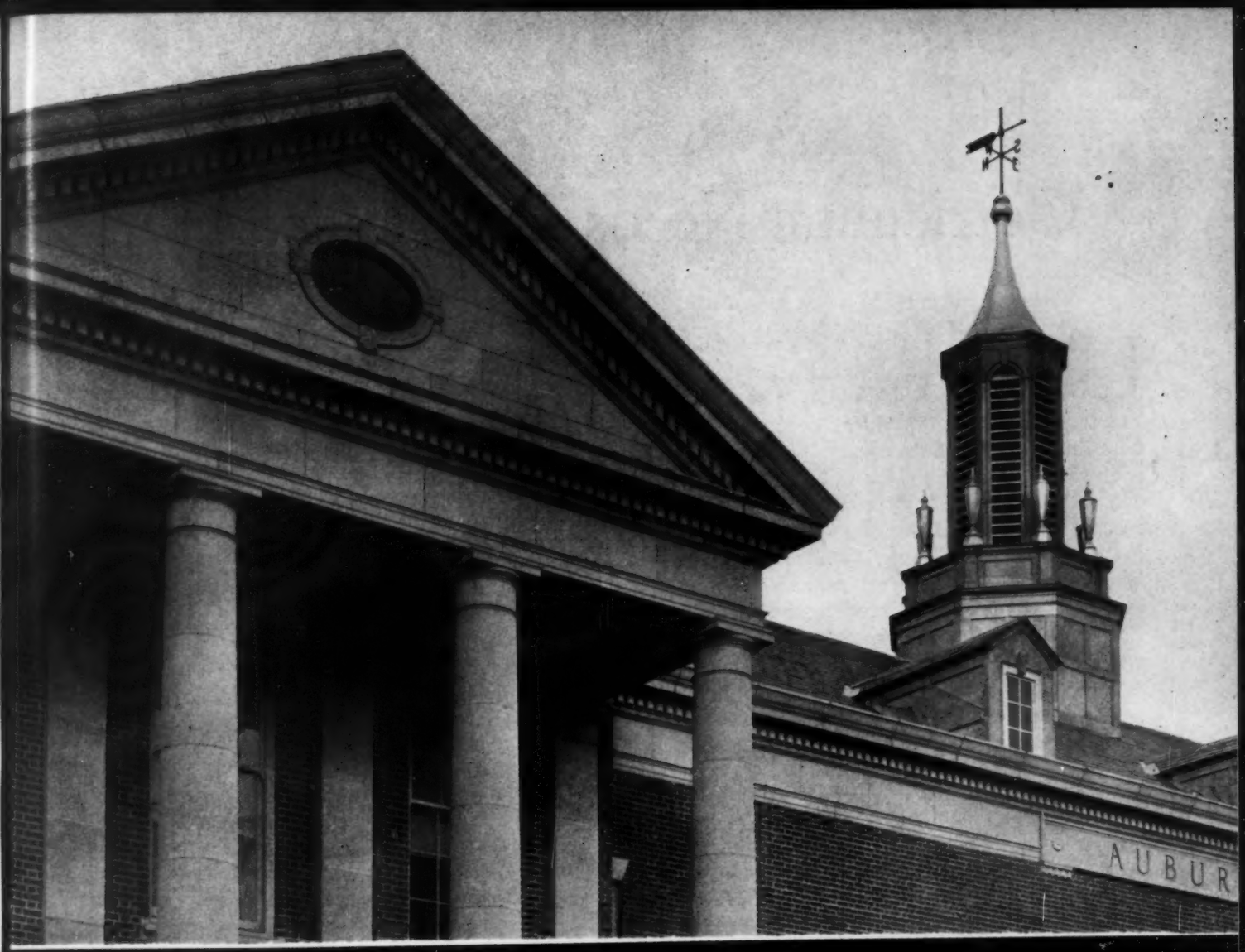
MORE courage is required to differ from public opinion than to go to church in your overalls.

"ENVIRONMENT," "technique," "achievement," "correlation," "student body" and other fad words when put into your speech give it no power. A high hat is no sign of brains under it.

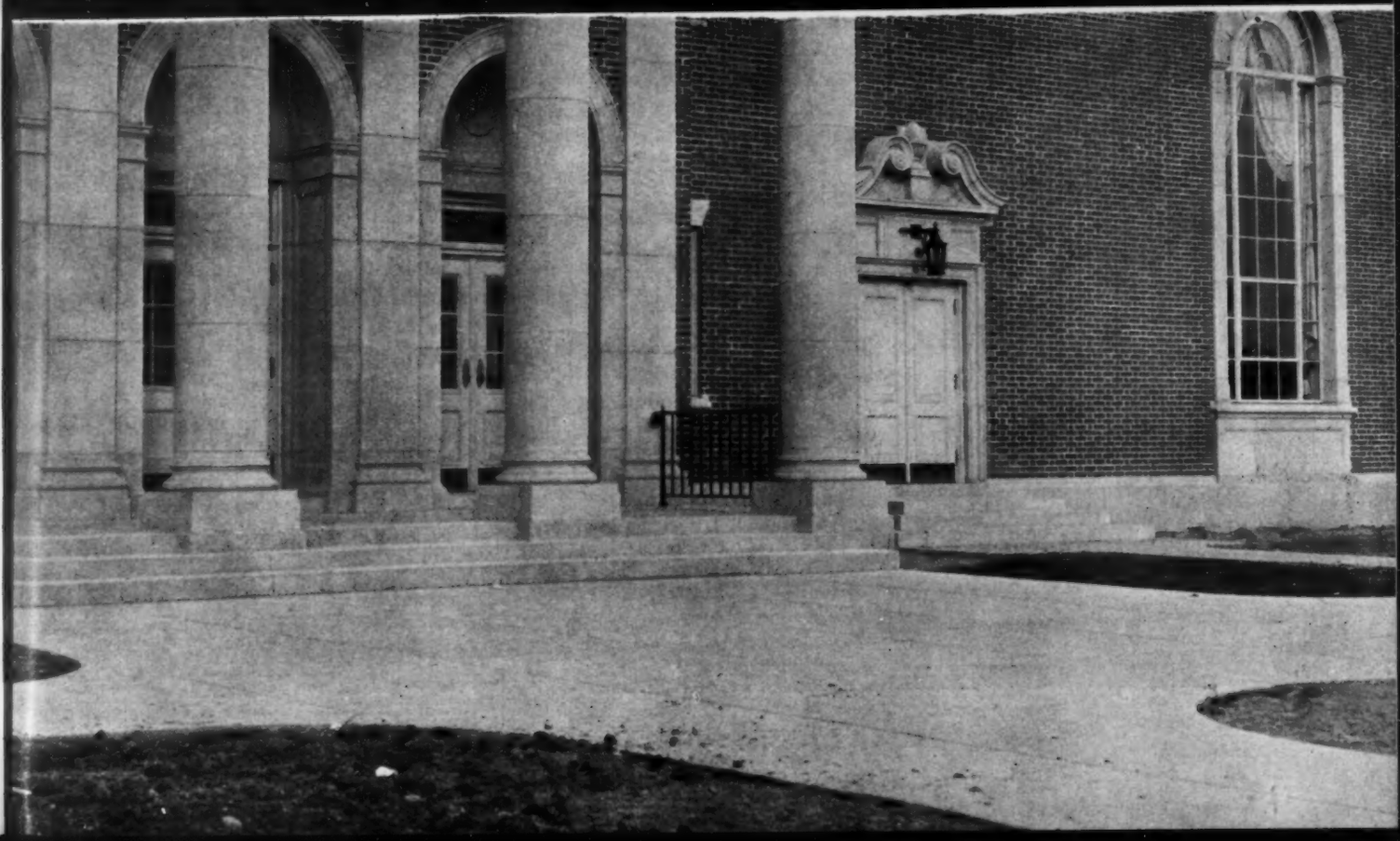
SOME men write in their diaries "try to do better today"; some, "must do better," and some, "will do better today." But he that writes nothing at all, who makes no resolution, he is not a man, just a vegetable.

THERE is a William Shroder, president of the Cincinnati Board of Education. If you want to absorb a real citizen's presentation of the way out of this educational crisis, open your volume of proceedings of the superintendents' 1934 meeting in Cleveland and read his speech leading up to the proposition that you get your teachers informed on what education must mean to the people of this country and that you get your teachers to use every means at their disposal for informing the public. So will you contribute to the saving of the schools.

Wm McAndrew



THE SCHOOL PLANT



Curriculum Needs Determined Plan of

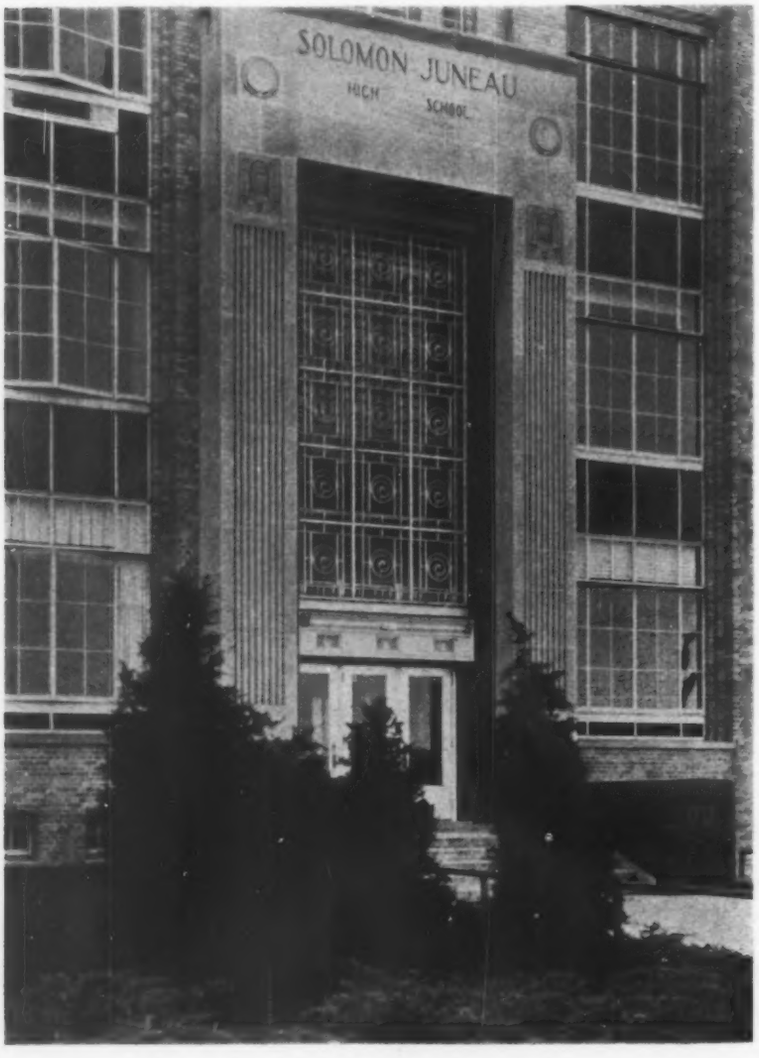
By W. W. THEISEN
Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Milwaukee

UNLIKE many cities that found it necessary to curtail school building activities sharply with the onset of the depression, Milwaukee for some time thereafter continued to build new schools. The Solomon Juneau High School, opened in September, 1933, and named in honor of one of the city's founders, is among those most recently constructed.

The building was erected as a part of the board's long term building program prepared by a special survey committee appointed by Supt. Milton C. Potter. Actual construction was undertaken somewhat in advance of schedule in response to a public demand to assist in providing employment through public works construction. The school serves an outlying district wedged between two suburban cities, Wauwatosa and West Allis. The territory is limited in extent and was already well built up at the time of its annexation to the city in 1927. Socially the district may be described as decidedly "mixed," both as to nationalities and occupational groups represented.

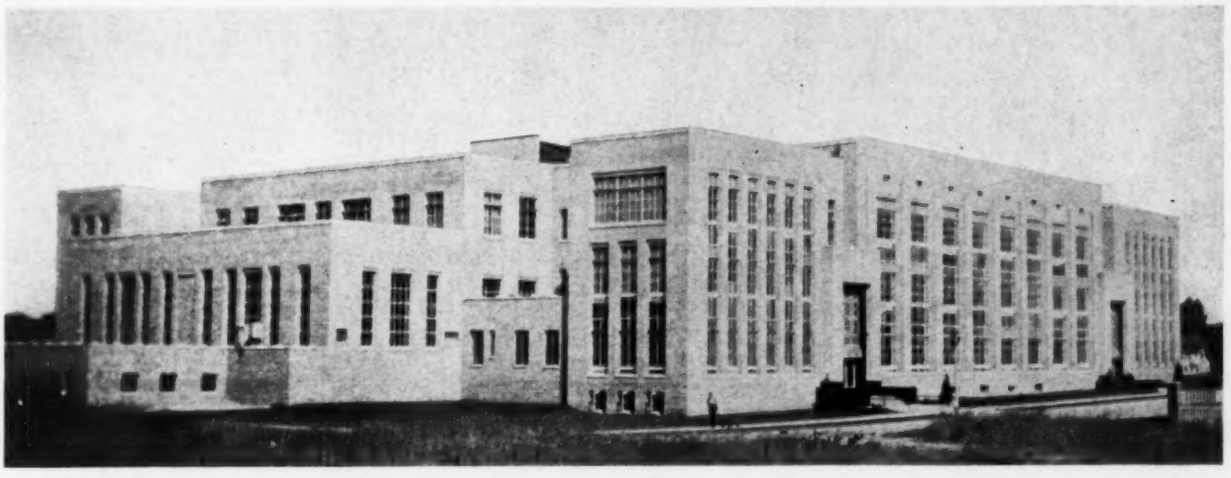
Because of the limited territory and consequent limited enrollment to be provided for, a departure from the policy of housing junior and senior high school in separate buildings seemed necessary. To provide both junior and senior high school advantages without entailing prohibitive expenditures, the board, on recommendation of the superintendent and the special survey committee, decided upon a six-year high school to accommodate approximately one thousand pupils.

Fortunately a fairly large unoccupied and centrally located site was available for purchase. Through cooperation with the city in carrying out the program of playground distribution the board of school directors purchased a portion of the tract sufficient for the building and an athletic field, while the city purchased the remaining portion for playground purposes. Through this arrangement facilities for football, baseball and track are provided, while outdoor gymnastics and games of various kinds for both boys and girls may be



The entrances are of buff Bedford limestone with black granite architrave around the doors and windows. Ornamental grilles and exterior doors are of aluminum.

Solomon Juneau High School



The building is 216 by 315 feet. The exterior is faced with buff gray vitrified brick with terra cotta copings.

conducted simultaneously. During the winter months a portion of the play field is flooded and used for ice sports.

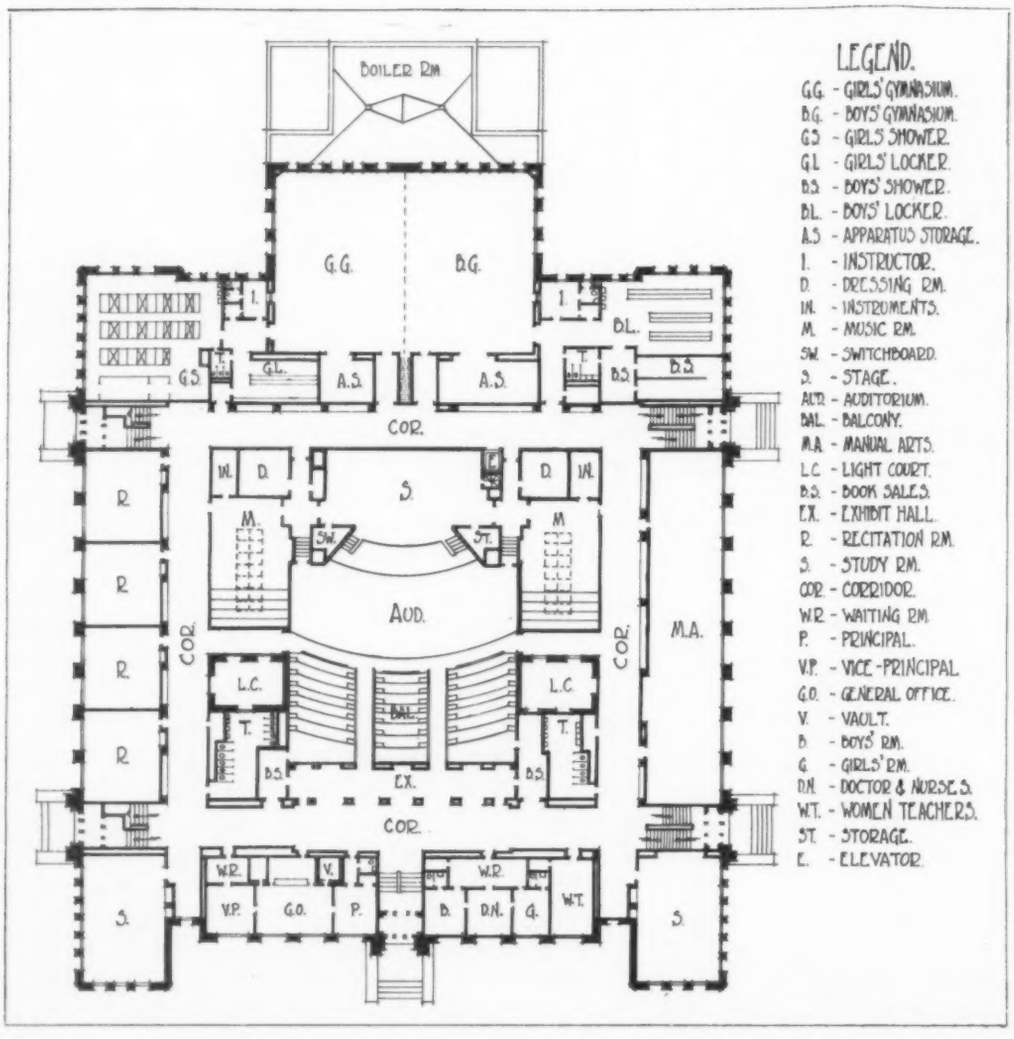
In planning the construction of the building it was recognized that the most important factor to be taken into account was the curriculum to be offered. The curriculum activities to be housed and the ways in which they are to be administered determine the various special units that must be provided, together with their location, size and arrangement. Unfortunately, curriculum needs and differences are not always considered when cost comparisons are made between schools. There is no denying that schools for housing curriculums of a kind could have been built for less money than was expended on many of the more modern schools erected in recent years throughout the country.

Modern Curriculum Requires More Space

The adequacy of the educational program offered commonly receives little or no consideration in studies of comparative school building costs. A purely academic curriculum of the book learning type with few electives can be housed in much less space than one which places a premium on the creative activities of children and recognizes the social functions of education.

To offer a program of education that will adequately prepare boys and girls to live under the conditions modern society imposes and to assume responsibilities appropriate to their individual capacities, quite different facilities must be provided from those required in the days when purely classical curriculums and more formal teaching methods prevailed. To make possible the attainment of such present day purposes as training boys and girls to live happy, healthy and wholesome lives, leading them to develop interests in many fields and to explore possible life opportunities in the light of their aptitudes and interests, training them for effective and willing performance of the duties of citizenship, and cultivating in them the attitude of students and independent thinkers with reference to civic, economic and social problems, as well as broad cultural education, calls for a very different conception of the functions of a school building than that which obtained in the days of the little red schoolhouses or even much later. The scope of the educational program in the modern school demands much more in the way of physical equipment than was even dreamed of in the earlier schools.

Modern schoolhouse construction calls not only for proper housing of an enlarged program of education but also for the absence of waste in planning. Previous to the depression at least the public on the whole was quite willing to tax itself to provide such facilities as its educational leaders deemed necessary but with an increasing insistence upon economy in the use of funds. In the early decades of the present century the practice of equipping rooms in such a way as to be usable only for highly specialized purposes was rather common. Chemistry laboratories, industrial arts shops and household arts laboratories were seldom adapted to other



There are two gymnasiums, each 63 by 46 feet, with an electrically operated movable partition which, when open, forms one gymnasium 63 by 92 feet in size. Balconies are provided in both of the gymnasiums.

The drawing at the left shows the arrangement of the first floor of the building. The accompanying legend identifies the various facilities that are provided.

uses. Unless the school had large enrollments such rooms remained idle for a considerable portion of each day.

This practice resulted in more rooms being provided and in greater capital outlay and maintenance costs than modern standards of utilization would warrant for an equal number of children. The saving grace of this error of an earlier period has been the fact that schools faced with rapidly increasing high school enrollments have found that by replacing some of their highly specialized equipment with equipment more adapted to general uses it has been possible to accommodate greater numbers. Specialization in the design of rooms and equipment can be defended only when enrollments in the subjects or activities they will house are sufficient to occupy them full time. The problem of avoiding rooms with low utilization probabilities is particularly acute in small high schools and in six-year high schools of the type represented by the Solomon Juneau High School.

In planning this school which was to house pupils from grades seven to twelve, inclusive, the possibilities of multiple use of rooms were carefully considered from the standpoints of design and equipment. The number of rooms set aside for such subjects as art, household and industrial arts, music and science was determined primarily on the basis of the number that could most likely be occupied to capacity or near capacity. Except as room could be made available for general class use, vacant periods likely to remain after each special activity was housed were deemed undesirable. For that reason it was necessary to choose or design equipment suitable for more than one type of teaching activity.

Multiple-Purpose Desks in Science Rooms

Science rooms, for example, were equipped with a multiple-purpose type of desk designed to provide comfortable seating for overflow classes in nonlaboratory subjects when necessary. At the same time the science desks were selected with a view to maximum efficiency when the rooms were used for science instruction. Gas, electric and water outlets, sinks and attachment receptacles were placed so as to interfere as little as possible with the use of the desks for other purposes. Through a common panel board electrical current of various voltages may be supplied to each desk. Individual desks may be lighted while micro-projection work is being carried on. Built-in cases are provided for holding individual pupil notebooks or other materials. A lightproof room and a small conservatory are also provided in the science department.

Similar procedures were followed in other departments. Convertible desks for the commercial department designed by the board's own employees are suitable for bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, office practice or classes in academic subjects. Each industrial arts shop is designed and equipped to permit the teaching of at least three shop subjects. Electrical work, work in metals and industrial mechanics are offered in one shop and woodwork, cabinetmaking and ceramics in the other.

Probable household arts registrations indicated the need for one full-time laboratory for foods and another for clothing, with overflow sections of both but not sufficient to warrant two additional rooms. A third room was therefore designed to accommodate both, allowing only such additional space as required for such necessary specialized equipment as stoves or sewing machines. Desks are usable for instruction in food, clothing or home management.

Cafeteria Is Also a Study Hall

Music rooms are designed for use by both choral and instrumental groups. Special provision was made for storing the various types of band and orchestral instruments, records and sheet music. The rooms were placed so as to adjoin the auditorium stage, thus facilitating the rapid transfer of music groups and their instruments from classroom to stage or the reverse. The cafeteria with a seating capacity of 450 is so arranged and equipped as to be usable for study hall purposes. Kitchen noises are effectively screened off by a separating partition.

One of the attractive special features of the building is the creative English room. The room has a small stage and is furnished in old English style of roughhewn, weather-beaten lumber and equipped with benches and tables to match. It immediately adjoins the library.

Facilities for health instruction and recreational activities indoors include a medical suite; two gymnasiums, 46 by 63 feet, separated by a motor operated folding partition; shower and locker rooms; an athletic team room, and a room that houses such parlor games as checkers, chess and ping-pong. The last provides a means of wholesome noon hour recreation, particularly in inclement weather. In addition unfinished basement space has been surfaced to provide a 75-yard indoor straightaway running track.

Special consideration has been given to the housing of instructional aids through generous provision of bulletin boards and built-in cases for exhibition and storage of visual aid materials, books, clippings, reference material and supplies. Lantern outlets are provided in each classroom

and provision is made for radio reception and sound amplification in each room of the building.

The building as a whole is attractively finished, both externally and internally. Buff colored glazed tile was used for corridor finish. This not only contributes to cleanliness and low maintenance costs but facilitates lighting and reduces temptations toward disciplinary infractions. Attractiveness is increased and quiet is ensured through the use of decorative linoleum floor coverings.

Special administrative conveniences include, in addition to a general office and a principal's private office, an office for the vice principal and the life advisement director, a storage vault, an exhibition foyer, recessed and lighted corridor bulletin boards, two book and supply sales offices, an intercommunicating telephone and signal system, a radio and sound amplification system, two teachers' rooms, special conference rooms, a bicycle storage room and liberal storage provisions throughout the building. The building has an auditorium seating 800 with a fully equipped stage and a projection booth for showing sound, moving and still pictures. The library has accommodations for 100 pupils.

Solomon Juneau High School as the Architects See It

By VAN RYN & DEGELLEKE
Architects, Milwaukee

DIRECTNESS and simplicity were the major considerations in the planning of the building, which resulted in a logical and straightforward treatment in a modern design.

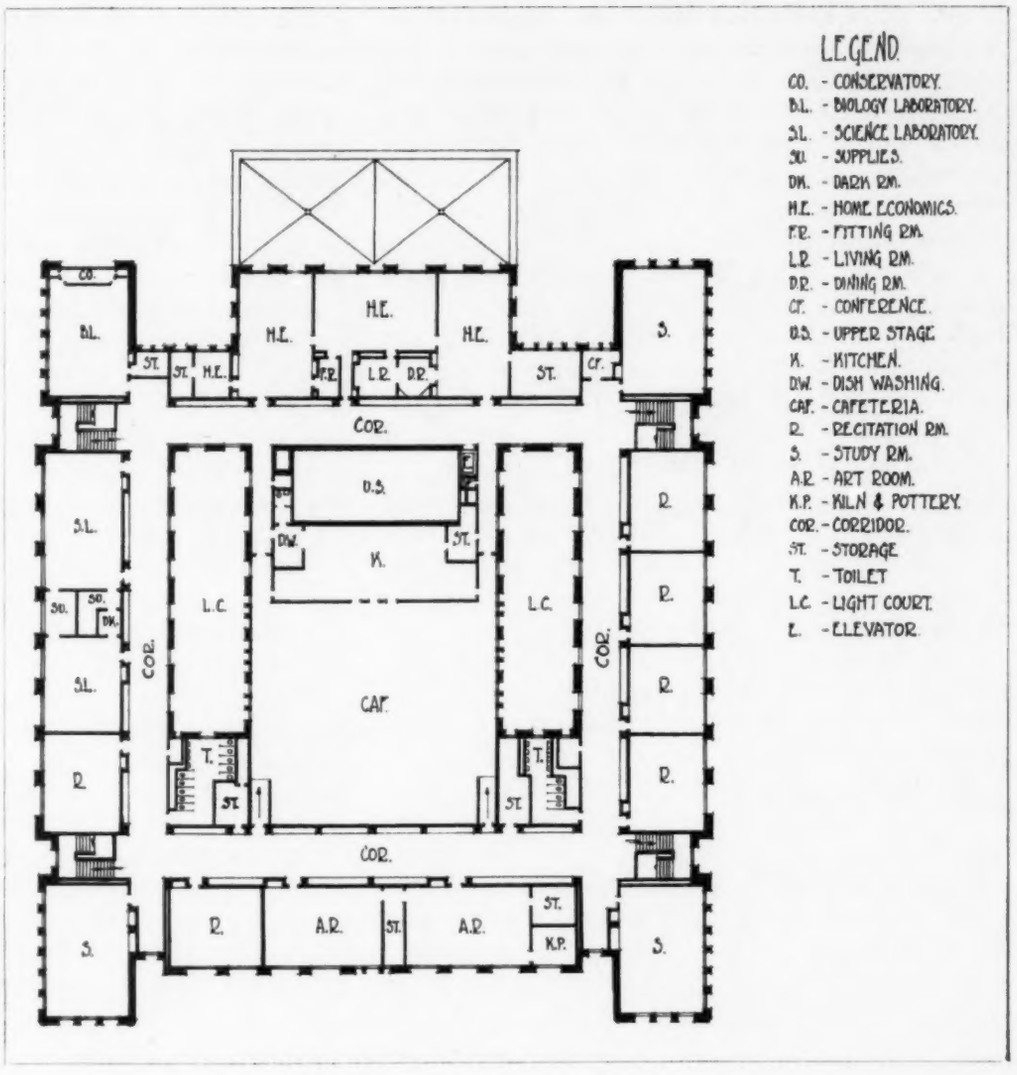
To the north of the school site the city has established a park and playground area and the school building is situated at the north end of the school site facing the city park and playground. South of the school building the school property has been developed into an athletic field and playground area.

The site, 256 by 845 feet, required a compact plan which resulted in a three-story building. The land slopes from the east to the west, so that the basement is almost entirely above the ground at the west end of the building. The building, 216 feet east and west and 315 feet north and south, is of fireproof construction with a structural steel skeleton supporting steel bar joists and concrete floor and roof slabs.

The exterior is faced with buff gray vitrified brick with terra cotta copings. The entrances are of buff Bedford limestone with black granite architrave around the

The Creative English Room adjoins the library. It is provided with a small stage and designed and finished in Old English with rough-hewn timber and board ceiling and wainscot and windows with stained glass.

This plan shows the layout of the third floor of Solomon Juneau High School. The accompanying legend identifies the various facilities provided on this floor.



doors and windows. Ornamental grilles and exterior doors are of aluminum. In general, the window frames and sash are of rolled steel with the exteriors finished with aluminum paint. Window frames and sash in locker and shower rooms are of rolled aluminum. All sheet metal work and all ornamental metal work throughout the building are of aluminum.

The floors in the corridors are of mastic tile laid with black border and the field laid with random pattern and full range of colors. Corridor walls are finished in light buff tile, random pattern with black base. Lockers are recessed in the walls of the corridors so as to be flush with the tile wainscoting. The stairs have terrazzo treads and risers with a nonslip insert at the outer edge. The stair railing walls are three feet high and are faced with polished Tennessee marble. Floors throughout the building, except in toilets, showers, locker and manual training rooms, are of treated maple and oak wood tile laid in mastic applied directly to the concrete floor slab. The floors in the manual training shop are wood blocks laid directly on the concrete floor slab.

The building is planned in the form of a square with the auditorium in the center and music rooms adjoining the auditorium on each side. Above the music rooms are light courts to provide light for the corridors, which surround the auditorium on all four sides, the corridors forming a square with stairways at each corner of the square.

South of the corridors on the south side of the auditorium are the two gymnasiums, each 63 by 46 feet, with an electrically operated movable partition which, when open, forms one gymnasium 63 by 92 feet in size. Balconies are provided in both gymnasiums. Apparatus rooms, instructors' offices, locker rooms and showers are on the same floor, directly adjoining the gymnasiums.

The auditorium is 78 by 75 feet with stage, 52 by 30 feet. The main floor of the auditorium extends directly up into stepped and raised seats forming a balcony, the upper level of which is on a level with the second floor, providing entrance and exit to the auditorium from both the first and second stories.

Corridors form a square on each floor. Study rooms, recitation rooms, classrooms, science department, home economics department and art department surround the outside of the corridors

so that all of the rooms are on the outside of the building and none on inner or outer courts. Administrative offices are on the first floor adjoining the main entrance. The home economics and science departments are on the third floor. Also on the third floor and directly above the auditorium are the cafeteria, 78 by 68 feet, and the kitchen, 62 by 24 feet.

The library, 73 by 25 feet, is in the main body of the building, second floor, north side, directly above the administrative offices. Adjoining the library is the English room, provided with a small stage and designed and finished in Old English with roughhewn timber and board ceiling and wainscot and windows with stained glass.

Boiler and fuel rooms are in a separate building at the rear of the school. The heating plant consists of two up-draft portable type boilers for mechanical stoker firing. Coal conveyors are installed to deliver coal to the stokers.

The basement under the west portion of the building is used for manual training woodworking shops. The metal shops are directly above on the first floor. The athletic room and bicycle room are in the basement. In the space under the first floor in the east portion of the building provision has been made for an indoor practice running track.

Ceilings of study rooms, gymnasiums, auditorium, cafeteria, library, offices and music rooms are acoustically treated. This use of acoustical material, together with the use of mastic tile floors in the corridors and wood tile floors laid in mastic in the rooms, has resulted in the prevention of various sounds carrying through the building.

The ventilating and air conditioning systems have been designed with separate units and control for each room in the building and also separate ventilating and air conditioning units for the gymnasiums, the showers, the locker rooms and the auditorium.

A radio and public address system has been installed with loudspeakers in each room and a microphone in the principal's office for use in addressing classes. Microphones are also installed in the auditorium and cafeteria.

An electric switchboard for the auditorium stage, installed in a separate room off the stage, controls by means of subswitches and master switches, the footlights, border lights, pockets and spotlights. The building is provided with house telephones, bell and gong signals, fire alarm systems and an electric clock and program system.

The conservatory in connection with the biology laboratory is provided with electric heaters for use during periods when the central plant is not operated at full capacity. An electric elevator operates from the basement to the third floor.

Window shades, including darkening shades, are of the accordian pleated type, arranged so that they are lowered from the top or raised from the bottom. Window screens are of aluminum of the rolling up type, full size of the window opening.

Superintendent's Rôle in School Building Planning

The problems involved in school building construction do not differ greatly from many other business problems of school administration, it is stated in the thirty-third Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I of the book is devoted to the planning and construction of school buildings.

The management of a school system, it is pointed out, leads daily to situations in which the expert in educational administration must seek the help of experts in other fields in working out the solution of problems that are primarily educational but that require knowledge and experience outside the ordinary sphere of an educator's work. In such cases the wise superintendent makes no effort to acquire intimate familiarity with these technical details. Instead he calls in persons who possess the needed knowledge and skill and gives them much latitude in making decisions. But he insists at every step in checking, directing and coordinating the work of these other experts, and he insists that educational considerations shall constitute the final criteria by which every step is judged. This is "superintendence" at its best.

The work of the superintendent, therefore, is to develop the fundamental educational foundation for his building program before other technicians have the opportunity to make decisions that will conflict with his objectives; to create an organization that is competent and willing to carry out the general plans he has prepared, and to establish, and throughout the whole process to control, such procedures as shall make his educational ideals the guiding influence in every transaction that is associated with the building program.

Thrift and Taxes

The practical application of thrift teaching in the public schools of Janesville, Wis., saves taxpayers many dollars yearly, according to the *Thrift Almanack*. Children in elementary schools are provided with free textbooks at city expense, and under the stimulus of the thrift education program they are taught to realize that books are public property to be carefully handled, and kept clean, neat and whole.

Publishers of school books list the life of the average textbook as three years. Yet in the Janesville schools all textbooks are going strong after five years' use. Mending tape administered by the pupils on any torn page helps prolong the lives of the books.

Emergency Feeding in Louisville

By CORA K. LOUGHRIDGE
Director, Department of School Lunches, Louisville, Ky.

IN LOUISVILLE the first year of emergency feeding was cared for by the citizens, without any solicitation on the part of the school. Personal checks were sent by citizens to members of the board of education and to the director of school lunches to purchase the necessary food. This led to the formation of a committee known as the Citizens' Public School Children's Relief Fund, the treasurer of the board of education taking charge of these contributions.

The second and third years, the community chest included the emergency feeding problem of the public schools in its budget, making a special appeal to school employees to augment the usual campaign fund by making larger pledges during the annual drive. A committee was formed composed of a member of the board of education as chairman, the superintendent of the public schools, a member of the executive body of the Parent-Teacher League, the superintendent of the Family Relief Organization, the director of attendance and the director of school lunches. This committee functioned with the community chest board.

The superintendent of schools appointed the directors of attendance and school lunches to supervise the emergency feeding problem in the schools, these being the logical departments of the public school organization to carry forward the investigations and the preparation and serving of the food.

The plan used the third and fourth year by the department of attendance to determine the number of children entitled to receive lunches is explained in the following statement by Frederick Hess, director of attendance.

"The administration of the lunches provided certain children in the Louisville public schools, with the exception of the preparation and serving of the food, lies in the department of visiting teacher service. The administration consists of (1) the investigation and approval of applications for lunch, and (2) the accounting.

"Application for free lunches is received at the school from the home. This application may come directly from the parent or through the child, in person or in writing. The application is investigated by the visiting teacher assigned to the school. (The visiting teacher is largely a pupil personnel director, handling all matters dealing with the personal side of the child's life. She is a former classroom teacher of at least three years' experience and high rating.) The visiting teacher approves the application upon the basis of her thorough knowledge of the economic status of the

The department's trucks being rechecked by the stockman before leaving to distribute supplies to the schools.

home. Upon the approval of the application the school is notified and the serving of lunches is begun at once, the visiting teacher registering the child in the central administrative office.

"Under the Civil Works Administration, from whose funds lunches were paid for during the present school year, civil works service employees were assigned to assist the visiting teachers in making subsequent investigations, regulations requiring a monthly investigation of each child on the lunch list.

"Upon the approval of the application, the child is assigned a key number. This key number appears also upon the registration card in the central administrative office. Each day the child obtains from the classroom teacher or from the principal's office, as the individual school may choose, a lunch ticket that bears the initials of the classroom teacher and the key number assigned to the child. This lunch ticket is given to the lunchroom manager in payment of the lunch. The child is served in cafeteria style with the other members of the class. At the close of the day these tickets are checked against the list of the school and are sent to the department of school lunches for purposes of accounting.

"Each week the department of school lunches bills the department of visiting teachers for the number of lunches served. Each school also sends at the end of the week to the department of visiting teachers a report showing the name of the child and indicating the days during the week that lunch was served. These reports are audited against the billings from the department of school lunches.

"At the end of each calendar month the billing is made to the CWA (FERA) upon forms provided by that office. These billings indicate the names of the children with the number of lunches served each child and the cost. Menus of the lunches served at the schools during the month are enclosed. Payment is made to the department of school lunches."

This plan works perfectly and is exceedingly easy of operation.

FEDERAL EMERGENCY RELIEF ADMINISTRATION
Thornton Wilcox, Administrator for Kentucky

P. T. A. No. 1-A
DAILY REPORT OF CHILD FEEDING PROJECT

O. Liter, Nutrition Director
Jefferson County, Margaret Merker School
Week of May 7 to May 14, 1934
Louisville, Ky.

Day	*Number Lunches Served*	*Menu*	*Estimated Cost per Serving*
Monday	230	½ pint milk	$0.03
		egg salad sandwich	.02
		kraut	.02
		mashed potatoes	.02
			Total $0.09
Tuesday	232	½ pint milk	$0.03
		ham sandwich	.02
		creamed corn	.02
		string beans	.02
			Total $0.09
Wednesday	234	½ pint milk	$0.03
		golden glow sandwich (raw vegetables)	.02
		spinach and egg	.02
		baked tomatoes	.02
			Total $0.09
Thursday	231	½ pint milk	$0.03
		minced beef sandwich	.02
		creamed asparagus	.02
		buttered peas	.02
			Total $0.09
Friday	233	½ pint milk	$0.03
		salmon salad sandwich	.02
		creamed cabbage	.02
		baked sweet potatoes	.02
			Total $0.09

Vegetables served with No. 16 scoop.
Whole wheat, rye or white bread used in sandwiches. Choice made by pupil.

(Signed) ANTOINETTE REUL,
Person responsible for serving lunches.

Department's Trucks Deliver the Food

The emergency feeding problem brought to the lunch department an increase of customers at the rate of 4,223 to 4,552 a day. An increased amount of food had to be prepared and served, and more employees were necessary in the schools located in poor districts.

Food centers were created to supply the eight schools without lunchrooms with food for necessitous pupils. One clerk was added to count checks each day. The department's trucks delivered the food from the centers to the schools without lunchrooms.

The government's protégés passed through the line with the other children, presenting to the cashier the ticket without disclosing the fact that they were the recipients of free food. Each child was told exactly what he was entitled to, and it was a rare occurrence for a child to take more than was allotted to him. The pupils were served two hot vegetables, a sandwich and one-half pint of Grade A milk, a nine-cent plate lunch. They could select any other menu, provided only nine cents worth of food was taken. As all prices are nonfluctuating in the lunchrooms, the children all over the system knew the price of each article of food. The only prohibited articles of food were sweets; this was at the request of the government nutritionist. Milk was a staple article, and was given unless some child possessed an idiosyncrasy against it.

Eliminating Sandwiches From the School Lunch

By HAZEL V. ALEXANDER
Supervisor of Home Economics,
Parkland Junior High School, Louisville, Ky.

The majority of pupils in this school, it was discovered, needed a better balanced diet. Accordingly, a five-cent vegetable plate was offered and sandwiches were eliminated from the menu. Pupil participation in planning the experiment was an important factor in its success

A STUDY of home conditions and usual school lunch selection in Parkland Junior High School, Louisville, Ky., disclosed the fact that a majority of the children were getting an oversupply of carbohydrate foods.

To aid them in obtaining a more balanced day's food, it was decided to offer in the school cafeteria for a short time a five-cent vegetable plate consisting of a small serving of green or yellow vegetable, one of a starchy vegetable or food and one slice of bread and butter and to eliminate for the time of the experiment the wide variety of sandwiches usually served.

Children usually respond to a project in proportion to their interest and participation. Thus the first problem was to give them a part, to create an interest, to develop a desire for trying the experiment and to give them an opportunity to voice their opinion as to its success and whether or not they wished to continue it.

In an assembly period the children were made acquainted with the plan and they agreed to cooperate. This program was carried out before the change was made in the cafeteria menu.

1. Three home room programs were arranged. (1) Pupils checked foods they liked best on mimeographed sheets; (2) food needs of the body and nutritive value of various foods were discussed, and (3) the selection of well balanced lunches in the school cafeteria was considered.

2. Home room classes discussed and prepared good combinations for the plate lunch to be served later. These were given to the home economics teacher who, with the cafeteria manager, selected from them the ones to serve for the various days.

3. An assembly program was presented by a ninth grade class giving the history of the lunchroom in Louisville schools and a three-act play on the selection of a well balanced lunch.

4. Talks on nutrition were made by pupils for various assemblies.

5. Graphs were made comparing the percentage of well balanced and poorly balanced lunches that had been selected in the lunchroom.

6. A rat feeding experiment was conducted to show the results of eating a well balanced lunch.

7. Mimeographed sheets containing interesting material and problems on nutrition were given to each pupil. This study was carried on in home economics and science classes. A short test was given at the close of the study and at the close of the experiment.

TABLE I—FIVE-CENT VEGETABLE PLATES SUBSTITUTED FOR SANDWICHES IN SCHOOL LUNCHROOM

Spaghetti and Cheese Green Beans Bread and Butter	Mashed Potatoes, Gravy Escalloped Tomatoes Corn Bread
Macaroni and Cheese Spinach Corn Bread	Baked Beans Creamed Asparagus Bread and Butter
Mashed Potatoes, Gravy Escalloped Tomatoes Corn Bread	Lima Beans Cabbage Bread and Butter
Red Beans Kale Greens Bread and Butter	Mashed Potatoes, Gravy Carrots and Peas Corn Bread
Potatoes au Gratin Buttered Cabbage Bread and Butter	Navy Beans Escalloped Tomatoes Bread and Butter

When the change was made in the cafeteria, four vegetables were served from which the pupils selected their plates. Menus were posted on a large bulletin board on the first floor and also on bulletin boards in the cafeteria. Menus were also read in home rooms each morning by the health council representative.

During the experiment advice was given to indi-

vidual pupils who selected poor combinations in the lunchroom. Committees of pupils were appointed for lunchroom decoration and every day during the experiment bouquets of flowers added zest to the appearance of the lunchroom and to the meal.

During the experiment the lunch was widely discussed, the pupils becoming lunch conscious. Interest was high. To find the menu their class had suggested brought exclamations of joy from pupils. Criticisms of lunches suggested by other classes were frequent. A poorly chosen lunch did not find much favor. It was observed during the experiment that more milk was consumed and more salads were chosen.

Was it worth while? The children seemed to think so for when the voting took place the majority expressed a desire to continue the project straight through until the end of the school year.

TABLE II—TEST GIVEN PUPILS AT END OF EXPERIMENT

1. This week I have learned to like_____. (If you have learned to like a vegetable this week write the name of the vegetable in the blank.)

2.

	Check the ones you have eaten this week as a part of your lunch	*Check the ones you have eaten at home this week*	*Check the ones you would like the luncheon to serve next week*
Asparagus			
Beans, green			
Beans, lima			
Beans, navy			
Beets			
Cabbage			
Carrots			
Celery			
Corn			
Kale			
Lettuce			
Onions			
Peas			
Potatoes			
Spinach			
Tomatoes			
Turnips			

TEST ON VEGETABLES

Fill the blanks with words, making the sentences complete.

1. Potatoes are a_____vegetable.
2. Spinach is rich in_____.
3. Cooking may destroy vitamin_____in cabbage.
4. Vegetables furnish the body with_____,

_____and_____.

5. Brussels sprouts resemble_____in appearance;

Part of the following sentences are true; part are false. Mark the ones that are true with a "T" and the ones that are false with an "F."

1. Cabbage is a tuber. _____
2. Brussels sprouts is a flower. _____
3. Salsify is a vegetable oyster. _____
4. Peas are legumes. _____
5. Tomatoes are rich in vitamin C. _____

School Cafeteria Provides Center of Interest

"Our cafeteria provides a center of interest and inspiration that is a unifying influence on school activities," states Mrs. Jewel Chapman, principal, Hawthorne School, Oklahoma City, Okla.

"We have installed lovely drapes at the windows and have placed one good picture in a suitable wall space. These give the room a most satisfying appearance. Palms are placed near the entrance where they do not interfere, and at the rear they form a pleasing background. Our tables are rectangular and the decorations vary with the season and the significance of the day—flags for February 22, lanterns for Halloween, candles and mistletoe for Christmas.

"In September roses are at their best in Oklahoma and each table has its own bouquet of beautiful blossoms. A little later chrysanthemums occupy the place of honor. These flowers are not purchased but are brought in by the children who take delight in laying their treasures before the god of tickled palates.

"Food is always displayed attractively and temptingly, even carrots and spinach, while the salads and custards are made especially inviting. Of course the foods are well cooked and a balanced menu is placed before the children. Teachers cooperate by helping children select wisely. For special luncheons like the Junior Police on Camp Fire Girls the art department contributes its talent in the form of place cards and nut cups.

"In our cafeteria we do not use many posters. Our little folk are not accomplished in art and our walls, picture and drapes are too pleasing to permit a discordant note."

A School Lunch Project

The school lunch project conducted at Chester Consolidated School in South Dakota is described in the *SDEA Journal* as follows:

"Combination bleachers and tables have been made. Every child has an assigned place at the table. Each member of the faculty serves in turn as a supervisor during the lunch hour for a week. Myrtle Ericson, home economics instructor, directs the preparation of the lunches which are served to pupils unable to return home for lunch especially during the winter months."

"Safety First" in Lockers and Locks

Modern education places new demands on locker accommodations. In addition to providing a place of safety for the hat and coat, space must be provided for mechanical instruments, art equipment and apparel for play purposes. Security in lockers depends on two factors, Mr. Armstrong points out, the selection of the locker and the type of lock installed

By FRANKLIN G. ARMSTRONG
Director, Department of Health and Physical Education, Public Schools, Montclair, N. J.

THE subject of security of lockers appears to be of far more general importance than the matter of physical layouts, kinds of schemes or administration of lock and locker distribution.

Physical layouts depend upon building plans and the sort of scheme that will be most economical and make for the best utilization of available space. Locker and lock distribution and control are also local matters depending upon the administrative set-up of individual schools. The problem of security pertains more to the locker and lock themselves and is almost the same irrespective of the situation or the administrative control.

Security in lockers depends on two factors, the selection of the locker and the type of lock. The order of these two factors is of relatively little importance. However, it is believed that a locker, because of its make-up, compared with a lock, and consequently the many opportunities afforded for tampering, even with the weakest of implements, should receive initial consideration. In other words, a fairly good lock attached to an inferior locker offers a minimum of security, while an average lock attached to a well built locker makes for much greater security, other factors, of course, being equal.

Specifications of many good lockers and locks are available for the asking. A composite of a few specifications, with respect to good and poor points, follows.

Two types of doors are most common. First there is the rigid type, made of a sheet of not less than 20-gauge steel. This sheet, at the outset, is considerably larger than the finished door. The extra material is folded and pressed back on itself to form the two edges of the door and two supporting tubular (either V-shaped or square) reenforcements extending the full length of the inside of the door. This scheme, because of the folding of metal at the outside edges of the door, adds greatly to the strength of the door at the points of attachment of locking device and hinges. The same folding of metal, however, causes the door to be known as a rigid type door.

Most rigid type doors can be twisted out of alignment by outside pressure at either top or bottom of the door and by inside pressure at an opposite point. In case a shoe or piece of heavy clothing becomes lodged between the bottom of the door and the locker proper and pressure is applied to close the door, the same twisting may be noted.

Is Difficult to Realign Rigid Door

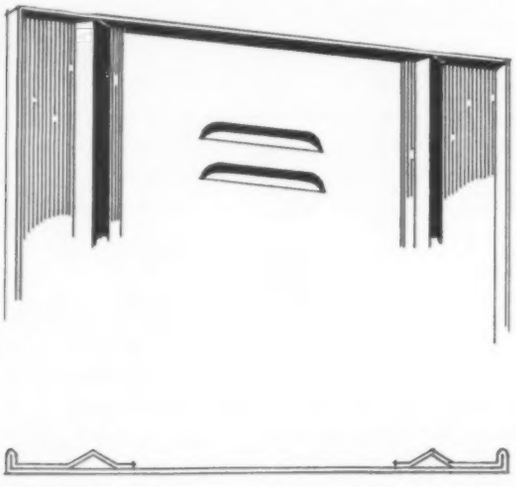
This twisting creates a permanent deflection in the door, as a rule, owing to the rigidity caused by the tubular reenforcements on the inside. If the twisting pressure is of sufficient force to buckle the tubular reenforcements themselves, the door cannot be pressed back into its original alignment. When the pressure is slight, the original alignment can be regained, but opposite pressure must be applied. In other words, the door metal will not swing back into alignment of its own accord. Obviously, therefore, any undue unalignment is likely to interfere with the proper closing and locking of the door.

The second type of door is called a semiflexible door. Because this type is without tubular reenforcements on the inside, it should be made of heavier 16-gauge steel. This door is flanged on all four edges only. An extra return flange on the two vertical edges forming the three sides of a rectangle adds greatly to the strength of the door. This door depends on no inside tubular or panel reenforcements, nor on the chance of perfect spot

welding for its strength. This factor, as well as flexibility, is provided for in sheet metal of a 16-gauge.

A door of the semiflexible type can be twisted out of alignment as well as a rigid type door. However, the semiflexible type, of its own accord and because of the absence of tubular reenforcements on the back, will usually spring back into true alignment, unless the pressure exerted has been great. In case enough pressure has been exerted to cause a permanent deflection, reverse pressure, applied properly, renews the original alignment. In case extreme pressure has been exerted with a resultant bend in the metal, by removal of the door, a mechanic can realign the door. This is not usually the case with a tubular reenforced door. The semiflexible door offers a balance between flexibility and rigidity that is advantageous and as a rule will withstand more abuse than a rigid type door.

Any type door, of course, must have both vertical edges joined by cross flanging at the top and bottom and welded at the four corners. This feature helps to prevent damage from prying by the insertion of flat implements between the top or bottom of the frame and the door. Otherwise this sort of pressure could be applied on the door at a



The rigid type door usually is difficult to realign once it has been forced out of alignment.

point between the outside vertical edges, which is the weakest point in any type door front.

In the process of stamping the louvers the tool is likely to leave a fine, sharp, wire edge on the edge of the hood which forms the protection of the small opening. To prevent severe cutting of fingers, if contact is made with these edges, the sharp wire edge should be filed off. Any door hinge that can be tampered with by the use of tools or pieces of metal should be avoided. It should not be possible to pry open the loops of the hinge in any manner. This is avoided with full hinge loops going around the pin forming double thicknesses of metal to be riveted to the frame and bolted to the door.

For security and convenience in removing the door for repairs, the hinges should be riveted to the door frame and bolted to the door. The bolt heads should be flat without slots and should offer no protruding edges. Lock washers should be used to prevent the nuts from working off. Lockers more than thirty-six inches high should be provided with at least three hinges.

Concealed Hinges Provide Increased Safety

Hinge pins must set in the hinge so that they cannot be forced out. This is done by placing the hinge in positions that make removal impossible. Better still are the concealed or self-enclosed types that can be secured. This is usually accomplished by setting the hinge flush with the door metal which is pressed out to conceal the pins. A hinge that serves as its own door check is also advantageous in taking up pressure on the frame when doors are bent backward with force. This type is usually made with the pin in the form of a loop, the ends of which are riveted in the door frame. There should be no notches cut in the angle iron on locker frames through which the hinge passes. The doors on this type can be forced back on the end lockers to such an extent that the sheet metal is caused to bulge when the hinge is attached. This bulging prevents the door from closing properly.

The locker frames should be of steel angle iron rather than formed sheet steel. All joints in the frame should be arc welded. This procedure is better than spot welding, which may prove uncertain. A good countersunk rivet job is satisfactory. Unless the short cross pieces of the frames are securely fastened to the vertical pieces of angle irons, when the doors of the end lockers are pressed back too far, and with undue force, the vertical angle irons of the hinge side of the frames are likely to shift their positions by turning outward. This may interfere with the proper closing of the door.

Channel iron cross members offer a good tension and compression medium that has advantages over angle iron. If made of 16-gauge iron these are satisfactory. The locker frame should run to the floor to form the front legs of the locker.

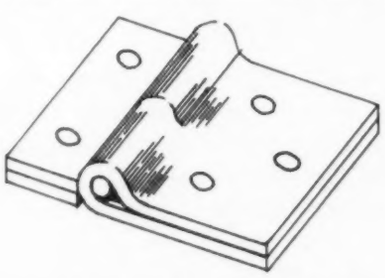
Nothing less than 24-gauge steel should be used in the body of the locker. It should be well flanged to provide double surfaces whenever bolts are to be used. Enough bolts should be used to ensure smooth, tight joints even after hard use. When this is the case, and the front of the locker bottom is embossed to set flush with the top of the front channel frame, cleaning is easier and safer. The front side of the bottom plate should fit inside and be carried by the lower flange of the cross channel. This scheme also helps to carry weight.

The large, unbroken side sheets of end lockers should be made of at least 20-gauge, and better, 16-gauge steel. The end lockers on aisles receive much pounding and abuse, and this soon dents and mars the end plates. Often, too, this results in sizable openings between plates and frames if the bolts are too widely separated. These exposed edges may invite accidents.

All lockers should possess three-point contact locking devices, one near the top, one near the bottom and one in the center of the door or thereabouts. This scheme, even in 36-inch lockers with doors of the semiflexible type, prevents the practice of pulling or bulging the door out in the center to gain access. This is possible when the locking device or the lock itself is operated at top and bottom only, or when the device sets into holes in the top and bottom cross flanges of the frame. This act of gaining entrance takes considerable force, but it actually has been observed. In one instance two individuals and a short, stout rope provided the power.

The locking devices, lugs or attachments (hooks) should be placed on the inside of the door flanges concealed partially from outside view when the door is open. If they extend outside the edge of the door they offer what might be termed a hook, because of the locking notch, on which clothing can be caught. Other accidents resulting from this condition have been reported.

A locking device that is concealed within tubes on the inside of the door may be jammed by prying with a screw driver shaped instrument to gain entrance. This jamming can cause damage of such

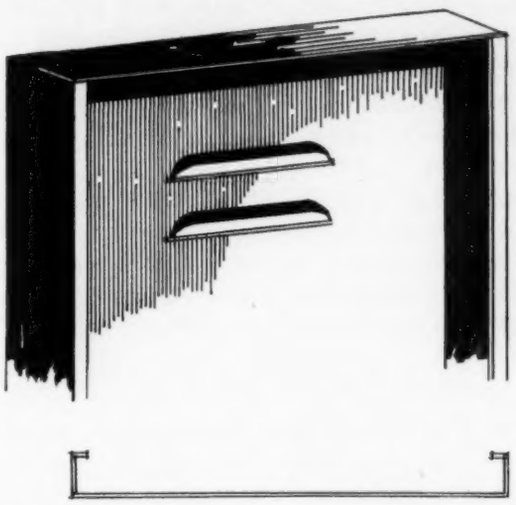


The full hinge loop is constructed so that the loop of the hinge cannot be pried open.

an extent as to render it impossible to open the door. Pressure exerted in this prying manner, between the edge of the door, which is also the outer edge of the tubular reenforcement concealing the locking device, and the frame, tends to dent the tube, thus obstructing the free up and down motion of the locking device.

Most lockers are equipped with automatic self-latching or gravity locking devices. This feature is usually made possible by the insertion of a flat spring or notched plate, at a certain point, which holds the locking bar up in an open position. As the door is closed, the locking lug releases the spring or dislodges the pawl from the notched ratchet, allowing the locking bar lugs to fall into their respective slots.

Care should be exercised in choosing a locker in which this spring or ratchet is so concealed that objects cannot be inserted to offset the gravity action of this automatic device. When the owner of a locker is not observing, a simple object, such



The semiflexible door, of its own accord, will spring back into alignment unless the pressure has been great.

as a match stick, may be inserted in certain types of lockers to hinder the releasing of the spring. This failure destroys the automatic gravity locking feature which the owner relies upon when closing the door. Entrance may easily be gained later by the one who placed the match stick. Lockers may be purchased with this automatic device centered about the lock itself, in which case the opportunity for tampering is minimized.

If this automatic gravity locking device is used on locker doors which have the locking lug extending outside of the door, any contact, accidental or otherwise, may trip the spring, causing the locking bar to fall. The handle, and in some lockers the lock, must then be operated again to close the locker door.

Most locking devices are accompanied with rubber silencers to eliminate some of the noise that results when the working parts are contacted. These rubber silencers gradually harden, wear or fall out and must be replaced occasionally if noise is to be eliminated.

The handle of the locker door should be connected directly to the door and not to the locking mechanism. If this practice is followed, damage done to the handle does not usually interfere with the locking device and the lifting lever or trigger. If other types are preferred the handle should be riveted to the latch bar. It should be impossible to remove the handle by unscrewing or by taking out a bolt. Handles should not be made of cast iron.

Malleable iron, stamped steel or other resisting metal should be used.

The locking padlock eye should be entirely apart from the handle of the door. In this case, even breaking of the handle does not permit entrance to the locker. A padlock eye (independent of the handle) which passes through a slot in the door is, perhaps, better than two hasps, with eyes, adjacent to each other, one of which is also the door handle. In some cases an extra long shackle padlock may be worked around and over the handle allowing the locking device to be operated enough to open the locker.

Inside hooks should be rustproof and should be fastened with two bolts or some other device to prevent loosening by turning. Number plates should be attached with two brass, split rivets or other arrangement to prevent easy removal.

Lockers Should Be Securely Anchored

The finish should be a hard, baked enamel that will not crack or chip with dents. It should withstand a hammer test. It should resist the use of antiseptic cleaning solutions.

It is, perhaps, too much to expect, but all bolts should be supplied with lock washers to secure the nuts or the ends of the bolt threads should be burred. Nuts alone are easily loosened and failure to secure them is accountable for much trouble.

Lockers should be securely fastened or anchored to the floor or walls. Especially is this the case with single rows of lockers, either against the wall or out in the room. The weight of lockers is carried on a base much too narrow for the height. Out in the room, back to back rows of lockers should be bolted together for safety.

Two devices are available to facilitate cleaning under lockers. Dust plates may be specified. These are inserted between the front and end legs of lockers, covering the space between locker bottoms and floor. Or lockers may be specified in which the legs are not integral parts of the frame, but are separately welded or attached to the frame and spaced some three feet apart. Of course, if lockers are set on raised concrete floor bases, both of these schemes are unnecessary.

It is a mistake to place small lockers in a given space in order to get in more lockers. The more lockers in a given space, especially in corridors, the more children will congregate there at changes in periods or dismissal time, thus creating a traffic problem. The same thing might apply to locker rooms with certain locker schemes.

Lockers should be placed in rows perpendicular to the source of light coming from windows in order that light will pass between the rows. Artificial lighting fixtures should be placed over aisles and not over lockers, low enough to throw light into lockers. Twice the width of the locker, plus one foot, is the minimum space to allow between locker rows.

For school use ordinary key fitted padlocks should be avoided, not because the locks are inefficient but because keys are easily lost and can be duplicated from originals or impressions. This scheme necessitates the use of a master key which is necessary, but which, at the same time, may be improperly used. Unless a trustworthy individual, an attendant or a school official administers the key it may be used on any locker.

The plan of allowing pupils to use their own locks is to be avoided. The use of different locks, to say nothing of appearance, allows for no school control of lockers for purposes of inspection, sanitary condition of contents or the location of stolen articles, as no one master key is available. Children often purchase cheap locks that are easily removed in a number of ways. Thus one child may have protection while another may not. Usually in key padlock schemes the bookkeeping and financial processes are troublesome, as are the keeping of duplicate keys and the replacing of lost keys periodically. Obviously, keys should never be numbered the same as lockers.

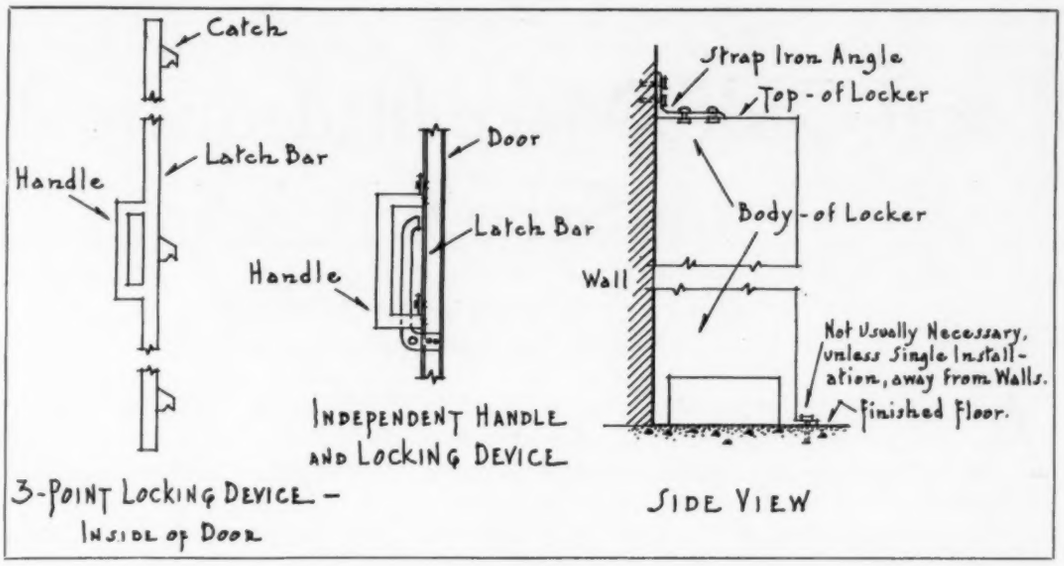
The combination padlock type offers a better solution to the lock question. This type of lock is usually of a sturdy design. The combinations are kept in a record book so that the school has control of the situation for any purpose at any time. The faults in this scheme center mostly with children. The combinations are forgotten or told to others.

Click Type Locks Have Certain Advantages

The combination lock fitted with a master key slot is convenient, although what has been said with respect to other master keys may be applied here. The master keys to combination locks, however, are usually made so that their duplication is particularly difficult. Gum or similar substances are often inserted in the key slot and until they are removed the master key is useless.

Click type combination locks are available in sturdy styles. They are advantageous in rooms where lighting is poor. They give no clues to combinations when shut or open because of the inner click mechanism and absence of dial numbers. The clicking mechanism may gradually wear, however, making it difficult to feel or hear the clicks. The combinations usually consist of from four to five numbers that may be difficult to remember. Certain types of click locks, when dropped on the floor, may not function properly thereafter. As a rule, the combinations cannot be easily changed in combination padlocks. Therefore, the combination

All lockers should possess three-point contact locking devices, one near the top, one near the bottom and one in the center of the door or thereabouts.



locks must be reissued each year and assigned to different lockers, as well as individuals, to eliminate the possibility of opening by the person who possessed the lock the year before.

The keyless lock should have a black background with a white lined and figured dial. This arrangement provides for visibility that is not present when natural metal, with stamped lines and figures, is used.

The body of the lock may withstand dropping and shocks better if it is die cast with a machined recess for working parts. The metal, in this case, takes up shocks better than the shell case type. On the other hand, a split case lock, riveted together, may have more strength on the locker than a cup shaped lock with a plate riveted on one side only. This side plate might be pried off more easily than separating the two halves of a shell type lock. The inner mechanism should be made of material that does not rust. It has been noticed that certain locks, not rustproof, have been restored to proper functioning only after being placed in an oil bath.

The hasp should lock securely in the case. It should be necessary to exert little pressure on the hasp to close it in locking position.

Other things being equal, a hard metal or steel shackle is better than soft metal. However, there is little to choose between the two. In the case of steel shackles, cutting through the steel is difficult. However, if a pry is used the locking device or locker may be broken and the shackle remains intact, while with the soft shackle, the metal hasp alone twists or pulls out of the lock. If locks are to be fastened to locker doors with chains, the drilling of a hole in the shackle, to take the chain loop, weakens the soft metal shackle. Therefore, hard metal or steel is preferable. Where metal ferrules are used for the chain attachment on the shackle, the ferrules should be sweated on or they should be of sufficient depth to prohibit sliding by or beyond the shackle curve and thus entirely off the shackle. The locker door end of the chain should be bolted to the door with a flat head, slotless bolt. The threads should be burred well after a lock washer and nut have been applied.

To avoid the practice of pupils turning the dial of the lock one or two numbers after the shackle is pressed into the lock in order to save time in reopening, a lock should be chosen that when closed automatically disperses all of the tumblers. This requires complete redialing in order to open the lock again. For convenience, a lock should be selected in which the dial cannot be moved while the lock is open. This prevents locking the hasp outside of the shell.

If it is planned to use built-in or attached combination locks on the door, it is possible to purchase types in which the combinations can be changed. In some of these types, the lock must be at least partially removed to make the change, while in others a reset key is furnished which simplifies the operation and eliminates removing the lock. When built-in combination locks are used, it is essential that the locks be so constructed that changes in the combinations can be made readily. If combinations are not changed there is not much to prevent pupils from remembering them from year to year. Lock companies usually make a charge for changing the combination of locks, but the work can be done by a school attendant.

Most lockers and locks have more good points than poor ones. This is in the administrator's favor. All companies have competent representatives who are willing, in honest ways, to assist in locker and lock problems. However, locks and lockers are not purchased as frequently as many other items. Therefore, their installation deserves careful consideration.

Local Codes Make Inadequate Provision for School Buildings

By JOHN W. SAHLSTROM
Superintendent of Schools, Elmira Heights, N. Y.

AMONG the major problems to be solved in the period of educational reconstruction before us is that of financing and planning postponed school building construction.

The accumulated need of school plant facilities with the consequent pyramiding of costs creates a situation that will demand rigid economy in building with a maximum of educational return. To attain this purpose, efficient school administration will make scientific use of known and approved techniques. There remain, however, other less well known phases of school building planning that markedly influence the cost, educational efficiency and safety of school buildings. Of one of these influences, the local building code, I have made exhaustive study.[1]

Mr. Sahlstrom, who has made extensive study of local building codes as they affect schoolhouse construction, proposes that the state code, which possesses the necessary powers to regulate all phases of construction, be constituted the sole legal control over local school building operations

Most school men are aware that local and state building laws impose upon owners and builders certain restraints and compulsions. Legal precedent for building regulation may be found in the earliest history of civilization. The celebrated code of Hammurabi, king of Babylon about 1900 B.C., sets up requirements and fixes penalties in the quaint but emphatic words:

"If a builder build a house for a man and do not make its construction firm, and the house which he has built collapse and cause the death of the owner of the house, that builder shall be put to death."

Legal Basis of City Building Codes

All building laws, whether state or local, derive their legal force from the constitutional provision that guarantees the general promotion of public health, public safety and public morals. There is, however, an important distinction between the building codes or standards of state departments of education and the building codes of cities and communities.

The provisions of the local code have been limited to a jurisdiction over construction features that have clear and immediate relationships to safety and health. Its authority resides in a delegated police power which, while safeguarding life and health, must not trespass on the sacred rights of property use. In contrast to this limitation upon local codes, the state codes appear to have extended their jurisdiction to include provisions relating to certain plant characteristics that would be held void in a municipal code. Thus it is found that state education laws frequently contain measures that have as their purpose the preservation of plant values securing convenience, fitness of arrangement or architectural appearance.

The available evidence indicates that school building construction is governed throughout the country by state and local laws with varying degrees of wasteful duplication. A system or lack of system which employs a multiplicity of reviewing agencies on both the state and local level obviously must occasion needless delays and expenditures. My study, previously referred to, proposes that the state code, which possesses the necessary powers to regulate all phases of construction, be constituted the sole legal control over local school building operations. New Jersey is the only state now operating under this plan.

This proposal is not intended to establish a highly centralized authority with inflexible regulation. It does not imply a standardization of artistry, design, color, decoration or assembly. It

[1] Sahlstrom, J. W., Some Code Controls of School Building Construction in American Cities, Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1933.

suggests rather a quasi permissive type of supervision and regulation which, through its superior knowledges and skills, could advise, direct and stimulate local school building planning.

The typical building code is a paper covered document containing highly condensed legislation. The wide range of its jurisdiction demands an organization of content that will secure both brevity and clearness of intent. The general method employed distributes buildings into major categories on the bases of occupancy and use. All conceivable types of buildings, ranging from billboards to skyscrapers, are assembled under a few appropriate head titles and subtitles. The usual plan sets up three building classes: public buildings, business buildings and residence buildings.

The school naturally is classified as a public building and is thus subject to all the compulsions and restraints established for this class except in codes in which special provisions or waivers are indicated. Following this customary plan, the school building is governed by the same general requirements that govern the construction of hospitals, nurseries, armories, asylums, railway stations, film exchanges and bathhouses. The assumption underlying the plan of including schools with these other public buildings is that these structures possess an inherent relationship in occupancy and hazard that molds them into a composite building. A close analysis shows up the absurdity of relating a school to a bathhouse for purposes of building regulation.

The school building is an entity with distinctive structural, use, occupancy and administrative characteristics. In developing this point it was found that the schoolhouse possessed no less than fifteen definite characteristics .that set it apart as an individual building. Most of the following characteristics should be self-explanatory: (1) transiency of occupants, (2) administration factors, (3) distribution of occupants throughout the building, (4) hours of occupancy, (5) degree of human utilization, (6) compulsory school attendance, (7) physical contents of building, (8) character of activity, (9) internal construction, (10) sanitation, (11) flexibility, (12) stature of occupants, (13) esthetic considerations, (14) municipal control of school building construction and (15) capital investment in school buildings.

TABLE I—PERCENTAGE OF CITY BUILDING CODES LIMITING STORY HEIGHTS OF NON-FIRE-RESISTIVE SCHOOL BUILDINGS

	Story Heights						
	0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
Codes prescribing individual requirements for schools			9%	77%	14%		
Codes prescribing blanket requirements for schools	13%	17%	32%	32%	4%		2%

In a careful and detailed analysis of the provisions in one hundred city building codes, it was definitely established that the application of general requirements to school buildings failed positively to recognize the individual needs of the school. In contrast to this it was discovered that wherever individual requirements were prescribed for the school, there was a marked agreement with best current practice. This contrast is most in evidence in those code sections that limit the height of non-fire-resistive school buildings.

TABLE II—EXTENT AND CHARACTER OF INDIVIDUAL AND BLANKET CODE REQUIREMENTS FOR FIRE-RESISTANCE

	Individual Requirements		*General Requirements*	
	Standard	*Non-Standard*	*Standard*	*Non-Standard*
Number....	57	23	181	339
Per cent....	71	29	35	65

Building codes that gave the school building separate consideration were definitely more uniform. Seventy-seven per cent of the individual requirements for schools limit the height of non-fire-resistive construction to two stories, while only 32 per cent of the blanket requirements specify this height as the limit. It was most significant to note that blanket requirements range from an absolute prohibition of non-fire-resistive construction to an allowable height of six stories.

Table I shows the contrasts clearly. This apparent disregard for safety on the one extreme and costs on the other was noted in varying degrees in all the other building features studied. Table II, a summary of this section of the investigation, shows how individual requirements tend to agree with authoritative standards.

Determining minimum safety requirements for the number, width, extent and location of stairways for various types of buildings constitutes one of the most difficult and elusive problems that building legislation encounters. The inevitable result is a wide variety of methods ranging in detail from a mere statement that there shall be good and sufficient means of egress to complicated formulas involving empiric arithmetical weightings of several factors.

Some of these requirements were excessive to the extent of demanding three stairways no matter how small the area to be served. While the costs of such construction are all out of proportion to reasonable safety requirements, other building

codes were too lenient, requiring only one stairway for upper floor areas of 5,000 square feet. It is certain that much experimentation and research are needed to determine a reasonably safe and economical method for calculating stairway needs of school buildings.

Outside fire escapes have been much favored in both state and local legislation. The visible effects of such legislation are to be seen clinging to the exterior walls of school buildings throughout the country. Their original purpose was to supply an emergency means of escape in that period of building development before the enclosed fire-resistive stairway and corridor had been put to extensive use. Their continuance on the statutes and ordinances may be ascribed to ill-advised economy, to a false sense of security, to tradition, or to mere imitation. The alleged lobbying of manufacturing interests has also been charged with creating and preserving this profitable market in fire escapes. Only six of the one hundred building codes prohibited fire escapes on new school building construction, twenty-three codes required them, and twenty-six permitted the substitution of fire escapes for interior required stairways.

The required bearing strength of school building floors is another structural feature that was frequently found to be excessive in building codes. There appears to have been little investigation or sound experimentation to determine the maximum live loads that any school building floor may be called upon to support. As a consequence the variations in requirements ranged from a dangerously low level to a costly high level. Thus, eight of the sixty-four codes specifying floor loads for classrooms set the minimum bearing strength at 40 pounds per square foot, or 10 pounds less than the 50 pounds set by the United States Bureau of Standards. On the other hand, thirty codes exceeded this standard, some of them by twice the minimum standard.

The minimum required thickness of bearing walls is another structural feature that varies surprisingly in different codes. Seven different thicknesses were prescribed for one-story walls, nine for two-story walls, eleven for three-story walls, and seventeen for four-story walls. Assuming a school building with 500 lineal feet of bearing wall and applying the maximum required thickness found in the codes for three-story schools, the result in cost of brick only will be $1,450 in excess of the cost of a similar wall constructed according to the recommendations of the United States Bureau of Standards.

Codes Need Drastic Revision

The entire investigation from which this review is taken points unmistakably to the need for drastic revision of local building codes. The school building demands an individual consideration that rarely, if ever, is accorded it in building laws. It is also evident that code drafting bodies are only vaguely aware of the educational needs of the school building, and that their requirements for school buildings are based on insufficient and frequently unreliable information. It is proposed that, in the interests of economy, efficiency and general welfare, school officials be required or invited to participate in the deliberations of code drafting bodies, and that their experience and knowledge be utilized to a greater extent than apparently has been the practice in former years.

How Foreign School Systems Are Weathering the Depression

In times of economic upheaval school administrators are likely to say that education is among the first of public activities to suffer from lessened funds and that it is helped the latest when recovery returns.

That the first part of this generalization is not warranted, the newly published Abel report shows. James F. Abel is chief of the division of foreign school systems of the Office of Education, and is the author of a new government bulletin on the effects of the economic depression on education in other countries. However, Mr. Abel finds that "unduly heavy recessions in educational funds occur so often and in so many countries that they are thoroughly alarming to the believer in education."

In some countries, it appears that education has actually lost more than its rightful share of funds. These countries, the Abel report shows, are Australia, England and Wales, India, the Irish Free State, Newfoundland, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Austria, Hungary, Poland, Cuba, Haiti, Nicaragua, Panama, Salvador, Uruguay and Liberia. Between 1930 and 1932, as many as 71 out of 103 countries studied show a decrease in the national funds used for education.

Construction of new buildings and reconditioning of old ones have been stopped in most areas. Exceptions are in some Canadian provinces and in the Union of South Africa.

Teachers' salaries have gone down as much as 10 per cent in sixteen countries only.

Unemployment of teachers is common in all countries reporting, although the percentage of unemployed is not so large as it is among industrial workers.

School enrollments have grown in industrialized countries, and older children are remaining in school one or two years longer.

"In a world in which at least one-third of the persons of ten years of age and over are illiterate, the slackening of education funds, even if they be much more effectively used, is ominous indeed," Mr. Abel declares.

Eternal Vigilance, Automatic Devices Will Reduce Fire Hazards

Outlining a program for reducing fire hazards, Mr. Frostic describes a newly developed automatic sprinkler head that affords maximum protection and conclusively refutes the common argument that cost of automatic sprinklers makes their installation impractical in school buildings

By FRED W. FROSTIC
Superintendent of Schools, Wyandotte, Mich.

FIRE is one of the most serious hazards to life and property. The danger is not confined to the physical effects of the fire. Panic probably contributes more to the real danger to life than does the fire itself. Primitive man was afraid of fire until he learned to put it out. Control of this chemical process has made modern civilization possible.

Obviously the way of escape from the dangers of fire and panic is to establish adequate means of fire prevention. Causes of fire must be removed as the first step in prevention. Adequate disposal of waste, proper storage and handling of oils and other inflammable materials, and proper inspection of electric wiring, heating equipment and similar hazards, are all important in a prevention program.

That many school buildings have been erected with little or no regard for adequate fire protection is revealed by the types of construction material employed and the traffic design of the structures. While older buildings are most often inadequate in this regard, a survey of some of the modern school structures will reveal narrow corridors unsuited to traffic loads, faulty stair designs, and use of construction materials that contribute to fire hazard. It is not uncommon to find even fine stone structures roofed with materials that are not fire resistant.

Sometimes such faults in construction can be remedied by remodeling. In many cases adequate protection by fire fighting devices must be relied upon to offset the lack of foresight of architects, construction engineers and other officers responsible for the approval of plans and specifications. A completely fireproof school building is practically impossible. Some of the better structures may be classified as semifireproof or slow burning but there is no building that does not require eternal vigilance. This will be true so long as the factor of human responsibility must be relied upon. Fire hazards have a way of accumulating and constant inspection is the only means of preventing their development.

Seven Suggestions for Improving Conditions

The following suggestions are offered for improving conditions applicable to all structures:

1. A thorough detailed survey of the structure by competent fire protection engineers.
2. A practical program of improvement based upon the survey.
3. Thorough instruction of all employees in fire prevention, use of fire extinguishing materials, the sending of alarm signals, and cooperation in fire drills.
4. Instruction of personnel in the proper care and storage of hazardous materials and elimination of all possible causes of fire.
5. Detailed fire prevention instruction to pupils with fire drills at frequent intervals.
6. Inspection at regular intervals of egress facilities, door and lock actions, and remodeling where necessary to meet safety requirements.
7. Installation, maintenance and inspection of necessary fire devices, such as extinguishers, water hose, automatic sprinklers and metal fire doors.

The history of school and industrial fires shows that the less reliance placed on human responsibility the better. Fire extinguishers, fire hose and similar types of fire protective devices are necessary and should always be included in protective measures. Such devices, however, depend upon the

presence of someone near the origin of the fire and their effectiveness depends more or less upon the skill of the operator. The more automatic protective devices can be made, the more reliance may be placed on them.

The most effective means of combating fire is to put it out in its incipience. This can usually be accomplished most effectively by automatic sprinkler systems. Such automatic devices are entirely practical for school buildings and offer perhaps the most positive control of fire hazards. Their installation in frame buildings is almost indispensable. Stairways, stair wells and corridors that offer means of egress are especially in need of such protection. The soffits of stairs in wood structures should be easily protected by such devices, in addition to the stair well itself. The positive action of the sprinkler heads may be relied upon to give the necessary protection when needed.

A quartz sprinkler head of the latest design. This type of head ensures positive break at low temperature.

Considerable improvement in sprinkler heads has been made recently. The older type of metal plug was usually set to melt and release the shower at approximately 155° F. Because of a lag in melting, however, this point often required a temperature of 165° F. before it gave way. Since the metal is made of an alloy the exact melting point was somewhat variable under different conditions. This type of head, although positive in action, has recently been displaced by a thin quartz crystal plug filled with a fluid that is much more sensitive to heat. The breaking point can be accurately predetermined and the normal plug is usually set at 135° F., approximately 30 degrees lower than the breaking point of the old type. The positive action of this new type contributes greatly to the success of automatic protection against fire hazards.

The location and number of automatic heads can best be determined by fire protection engineers as a part of the survey previously mentioned. While the number and location will depend upon the type of structure and the determined hazards, it is evident that certain rooms and locations should always have such protection. All storerooms holding paper, books, lumber, oils and general supplies should be protected, as should laboratories, shops and engine rooms, especially when they are near or part of the main building. Waste paper storage rooms should invariably be protected. Corridors, stairways and stair wells are important centers requiring such protection to ensure quick egress.

Paper chutes require the installation of one or more heads. Such chutes are usually of metal surrounded by brick or concrete materials. They invariably contain paper waiting to be baled or being carried to the baling room. Such chutes, although necessary, often serve as flues in case of fire. Matches from wastebaskets may easily be lighted on the way down the chute during the dumping of paper. A head installed a few feet above the bottom of the chute with a small metal hood to protect it from the downward movement of the paper will eliminate the fire hazard at this point. The water supply pipe line is carried in the corner of the chute.

Objection is often made to sprinkler systems because of the water carried in the lines. In buildings where freezing temperatures exist at certain times this is a valid objection. This difficulty is overcome by the installation of dry lines equipped with an air valve. Even cold garages, industrial storage rooms and school buildings where the range of temperature is great can thus be as adequately protected as those structures where wet lines are employed.

The Cost of Sprinkler Equipment

The cost of installation of automatic sprinklers is frequently offered as an argument against their use in schools. This objection can be met by two arguments that should be conclusive. First, such materials provide the only positive protective means against fire. Second, it has been a common practice for finance companies to install such protection in school buildings, taking their money out of the difference in the insurance rates on such structures. The period usually required to pay off the cost of the installation varies with the type of structure but usually payment is completed in from five to seven years. At the end of this time the equipment becomes the property of the board of education. Present economic conditions have all but eliminated such investments by finance concerns, but the length of the period necessary to pay for the installation is still useful in computing the costs of such equipment.

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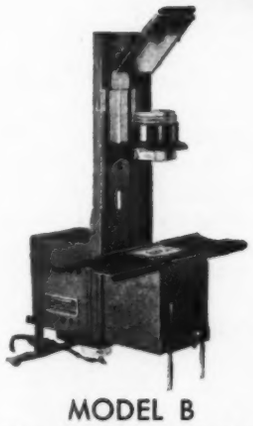

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An Inexpensive, Fast Dishwasher for Schools

The Modern Maid Company, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, is marketing an electrical dishwashing unit which is especially adapted for school cafeterias. The price is low and the unit is compact and convenient.

The Modern Maid dishwasher employs a new principle of water action, it is stated. A seething volume of hot water surges up from the bottom of the tub—then downward around the dishes, cleaning them thoroughly without injury or breakage, it is claimed, and cleaning them in a sanitary way without human hands coming in con-

tact with either the dishes or the water.

No experience is needed to operate the Modern Maid. School pupils can run the machine successfully. Its capacity is about 2,000 dishes per hour with 9 gallons of water. The machine, besides washing dishes, glassware and silverware, may be used for washing fruits, vegetables and eggs.

Reduced Cleaning Costs With Reversible Window

A pivoted type of wood sash window has become quite popular in many schools. The pivoted feature may be added to the regular sliding double hung window or it may be used in plank frames without the sliding feature.

The sliding pivoted type retains all the features of a double hung window but adds reversibility for cleaning the outside of both sash from the floor level and gives deflected ventilation by tilting either or both sash.

The plank frame type does not slide, but both sash can be cleaned entirely from the inside and can be opened only by tilting, thereby ensuring overhead ventilation. It is weathertight, lends itself to shading and is economical, it is pointed out, because of the elimination of weight, cords and pulleys and the use of a plank frame instead of a box frame.

Both types of window, it is claimed, materially reduce window cleaning costs and eliminate the danger that is connected with outside window cleaning.

Williams Pivot Sash Co., East Thirty-Seventh Street and Perkins Avenue, Cleveland, is the manufacturer.

Special Plate Glass Absorbs Sun's Heat

A new type of plate glass that differs from ordinary plate or window glass has been announced by Libbey-Owens Ford Glass Company, Toledo, Ohio. "Aklo" plate glass is a glass of special chemical composition which has the peculiar property of being able to absorb heat, and thus reduces the amount of the sun's heat entering through a window in the summer.

This type of glass, like ordinary window glass, does not transmit heat waves thrown off from a radiator or other heating device in a room and so will not cause heat to leave the room in the winter when it is desired to keep the heat in the room, the manufacturer explains.

Aklo plate glass, however, is designed to absorb heat energy from all other light sources that contain heat energy, as well as from the sun.

Control Device for Stopping Heat Waste

As the heating system in a building is designed to care for extreme conditions and as these conditions arise approximately only 5 per cent of the entire heating season, it is logical that some adequate means of control should be provided for use during the periods when extreme conditions do not prevail, in order to prevent waste of heat.

A new control device, the Tritrol Regulator, has been placed on the market by James P. Marsh Corporation, Chicago. This device automatically varies the time of starting the heating system in the morning, and the time of shutting it down at night to compensate for changes in the outside temperature. During the day, it maintains an intermittent flow of heat to the building, automatically adjusted by the weather, according to the manufacturer.

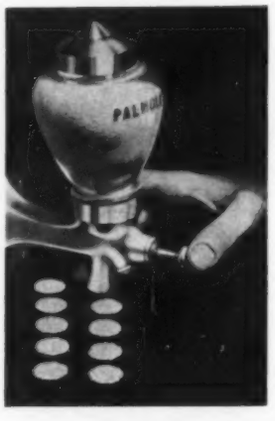
The regulator may be used to control the several zones of a building, for valve control or for group control where several buildings are controlled from a central point.

New Type Soap Dispenser Offers "Measured Soap"

An attractive, new style soap dispenser, built by Colgate-Palmolive-Peet Company, Jersey City, N. J., is being installed in many group washrooms. With the company's dry bubble form of Palmolive toilet soap, this fixture provides a new type of soap dispensing service.

The fixture provides the user with "measured soap." This new form of soap control effects a large saving in washroom soap costs, with each "wash" amounting to less than one-hundredth of one cent, it is said.

Securely locked, the refill opening and drain plug discourage tampering



and prevent tapping. The simple construction of straight line plunger action offers no strain, from twisting motion or torque, to the fixture. This plunger releases a uniform amount of soap, two pressures being sufficient for the average wash—and this cannot be greatly increased by a number of quick jabs. Thus, the development known as "measured soap."

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This Sanitary Pedestal Desk Set is only one of the reasons educators throughout the country prefer to rely on H-W equipment.

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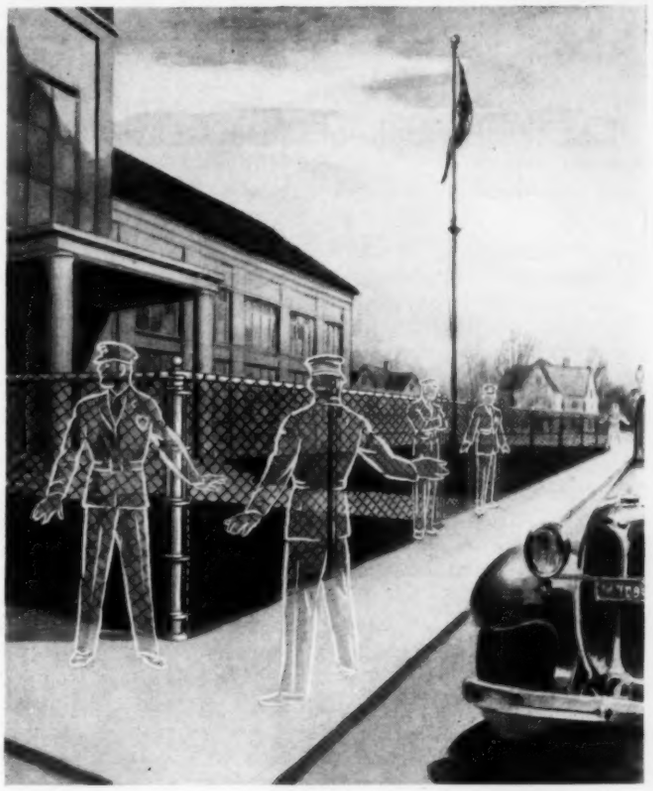

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THE NEWS OF THE MONTH

Council on Schoolhouse Construction Discusses Present and Future Needs in School Buildings

Featuring a program adjusted to current as well as long span problems in planning and constructing public schools, the twelfth annual convention of the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction was one of the most successful meetings it has held.

The program was divided into three phases, that relating to the study and discussion of the New Deal policies and practices on school construction, continued work on research in the development of standards, and the presentation of individual research.

Beginning with Oscar L. Chapman, assistant secretary of the interior, who

R. H. F. Halsey.

sketched the major problems involved in educational reconstruction, the council successively heard Alice Barrows, specialist in school building problems of the U. S. Office of Education; Major Philip B. Fleming, deputy administrator of PWA; Dr. Homer Morris, of subsistence homesteads; Dr. Earl P. Hanson, research technician of the water resources section of the National Resources Board, and David Cushman Coyle, of the Technical Board of Review, discuss the New Deal in its various aspects and in terms of its relationship to state programs.

Research presented included presentation of "Predictive Formulae for Determining Capacity of Secondary Schools in New York," by Dr. W. K. Wilson, New York State Department of Education; "Suggested Standards for Determining Capacity for Cost Computation Purposes," by R. H. F. Halsey, New York City school system; "Some Aspects of the School Architect's Job," by H. W. Schmidt, Wisconsin State Department of Education; "Certain Phases of Fire Insurance for School Buildings," by Dr. N. E. Viles, director, school building service, State Department of Education, Missouri, and "Some Phases, Facts and Theories on Heating and Ventilating," by A. G. Corbin, New York City, deputy superintendent of buildings and maintenance.

The round table sessions were devoted primarily to consideration of standards in service facilities in elementary and secondary schools. As is the custom, the committee's report was accepted tentatively subject to review after publication.

The council also voted cordial cooperation with the U. S. Office of Education in the development of planning activities under both FERA and PWA. The authorization of the release of state funds for school plant survey activity by Director Harry Hopkins was also announced at this meeting.

In accordance with custom R. H. F. Halsey, vice president during the current year, was elevated to the presidency, and W. G. Eckles, chairman of the executive committee, was advanced to the vice presidency. After serving twelve consecutive years as secretary-treasurer, William C. Bruce, Milwaukee, refused to stand for office and was succeeded by Prof. Ray L. Hamon, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. The new executive committee includes Dr. J. H. Hixon, New York State Department of Education; Dr. Arthur B. Moehlman, University of Michigan, and Dr. N. E. Viles, director, school building service, State Department of Education, Missouri.

The council will hold its 1935 meeting in Washington, D. C., Oct. 14 to 18.

NBC Resumes Music Appreciation Hour

The seventh consecutive season of the nation's greatest organized course in the understanding of good music, the NBC Music Appreciation Hour, was inaugurated under the baton of Dr. Walter Damrosch, on Friday, October 5, over combined coast-to-coast NBC-WEAF-WJZ networks.

More than six million school children throughout the country will develop their knowledge of the world's greatest compositions in the twelve weekly concerts by the NBC Symphony Orchestra, in which Doctor Damrosch will demonstrate the various forms of music. Students' notebooks giving the themes of the numbers played in each broadcast, and instructors' manuals to assist in interpreting the course, are now being distributed from the NBC studios in Radio City, New York City.

The 1934-35 course, as in previous seasons, will consist of four series of graded programs for children from eight to eighteen years old. Each Friday morning broadcast from 11:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon, E. S. T., will include programs for two of the series, the remaining two being covered in the broadcast the following week.

Will Meet in Pittsburgh

The national convention of the American Physical Education Association and its Eastern District Society will be held at Pittsburgh, April 24 to 27, 1935, it has been announced by A. M. Kerr, M.D., Pittsburgh, chairman of the publicity committee.

Geographic Society Again Publishes News Bulletins

The National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C., has resumed publication of its illustrated geographic news bulletins for teachers.

These bulletins are issued weekly, five bulletins to the weekly set, for thirty weeks of the school year. They embody pertinent facts for classroom use from the stream of geographic information that pours daily into the society's headquarters from every part of the world.

The bulletins are obtainable only by teachers, librarians, college and normal students. Teachers may order bulletins in quantities for class use, to be sent to one address, but $0.25 must be remitted for each subscription. The bulletins are issued as a service, not for financial profit, by the National Geographic Society as a part of its program to diffuse geographic information. They give timely information about boundary changes, geographic developments, new industries, costumes and customs, and world progress.

LOOK AT THE DIFFERENCE GOOD SEATING MAKES

Group study desk work with "American" Universal desks in table formation. Grand Rapids, Michigan, public school.

A classroom illustration sent in by a teacher. A pathetic example of bad sizing, unavoidable bad posture and dangerous eyestrain.

Group study desk work with old type chair desks in midwestern school. An example of unavoidable bad posture and eyestrain

Classroom work with "American" Henderson-Universal Sightsaving desks, Horace Mann School, Columbia University, New York City.

FREE *Classroom Posture Poster and Seating Booklets*

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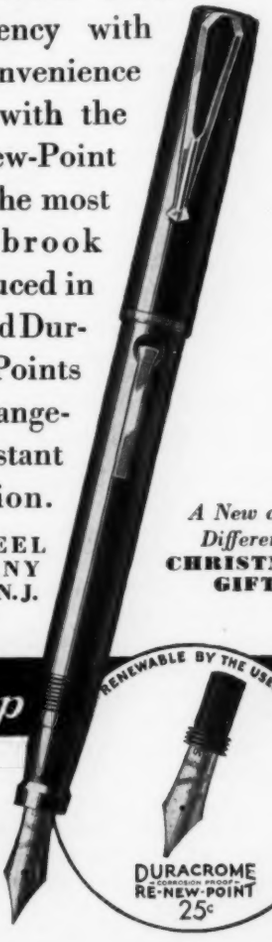

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THE NEWS OF THE MONTH

Dietitians Discuss Modern Food Problems

A carefully selected program designed to interest dietitians and those engaged in meeting present day problems in school and university feeding, attracted a registration of over 700 at the seventeenth annual meeting of the American Dietetic Association, held October 14 to 19 in Washington, D. C.

Quindara Oliver Dodge, Simmons College, Boston, president of the association, presided at the opening general session, and others prominent among the speakers on the programs for the week were: Dr. Mary deGarmo Bryan, head of institution management, Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. Martha MacLear, department of psychology, Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D. C.; Alice Blood, director of home economics, Simmons College, Boston; Dr. F. W. Tanner, department of bacteriology, University of Illinois; Dr. Marie Dye, dean, division of home economics, Michigan State College, and Dr. Georgian Adams, bureau of home economics.

In addition to the general sessions and special meetings, an unusually attractive array of exhibits was lined up for the inspection of visitors. Approximately 40 organizations displayed the latest food products, in many instances inviting interest through cordial invitations to sample the attractively dressed dishes.

Laura Comstock, Eastman Kodak Company, was elected president of the association for the new year.

"Hobbies" Will Be Theme of Book Week Program

Hobbyhorse book shows for boys and girls will be a feature of the 1934 Book Week program in many schools, public libraries and bookshops. The dates of this sixteenth observance of the week are November 11 to 17.

There has been a great deal of discussion recently of hobbies for adults, to fill up new leisure hours, but less attention has been given to children's hobbies. The great variety of special interests followed by the younger generation of hobby riders will be shown in the Book Week displays, along with the informational books which are indispensable aids in pursuing a favorite hobby in all its ramifications. Books of science, history, travel and fiction also will be shown—tales of the sea and the fascinating byways of the history of navigation flanking books on ship model building, for instance, with examples of student craftsmanship in this field.

Suggestions for organizing the hobbyhorse shows are given in a new leaflet available from the National Association of Book Publishers, 347 Fifth Avenue, New York City; other project suggestions for classroom and library observance of Book Week are included also. The new poster in color, with its challenging slogan, "Ride the Book Trail to Knowledge and Adventure," will be sent with the booklet. The charge is twenty-five cents.

U. of Vermont Announces New Teacher Training Plan

The University of Vermont has made an important announcement with reference to its future plans for teacher training. The official statement explaining the new plan is given below.

"The University of Vermont and State Agricultural College announces that commencing with the college year 1934-1935 the present two-year teacher training curriculum will be extended so as to provide for two more years of teacher training, thereby resulting in a complete four-year elementary education curriculum. Through this arrangement, a student who satisfactorily completes the prescribed four-year course will be awarded the degree of bachelor of education. The candidate for this degree will be recommended to the committee on degrees by the head of the department of education and the committee in turn will make its recommendations to the board of trustees.

"The two-year curriculum was established in 1921 at the request of the state board of education and has been continued since that date. Only such modifications have been made as have been agreed to by the university and the state board of education. The inauguration by the university of the extension of the present two-year course thereby providing a complete four-year elementary education curriculum leading to the degree of bachelor of education, will enable those who so desire to complete their teacher training at the university rather than to be obliged to go outside the state for that purpose. Graduates of other two-year teacher training schools either in Vermont or in other states will be admitted to the third year of this curriculum provided they present recommendations and credits that are satisfactory to the university. The development of this curriculum will not in any way affect the four-year teacher training curriculum leading to the degree of bachelor of science in education. Students who are candidates for the new degree will be eligible for aid from university funds on the same basis as any duly enrolled candidate for any other degree.

"In formulating its building program, consideration is to be given to the development of the department of education into what may eventually prove to be a school of education."

Oregon Gets FERA Funds

FERA funds in the amount of $14,000 have been allocated to Oregon monthly for the five-point educational relief program, which will consist of literacy classes for adults unable to read and write, vocational education classes, vocational rehabilitation, general adult education classes, and a limited number of nursery school units to demonstrate the care of children of preschool age in relief families. These classes will be taught by needy unemployed teachers selected by the county and city school superintendents from among those who have been found "eligible for relief" by the county.

Coming Meetings

Nov. 8-10—Arizona Teachers Association, Phoenix.

Nov. 8-10—Missouri State Teachers Association, Kansas City.

Nov. 8-10—Colorado Education Association, Denver, Pueblo and Grand Junction.

Nov. 25-28—South Dakota Education Association, Huron.

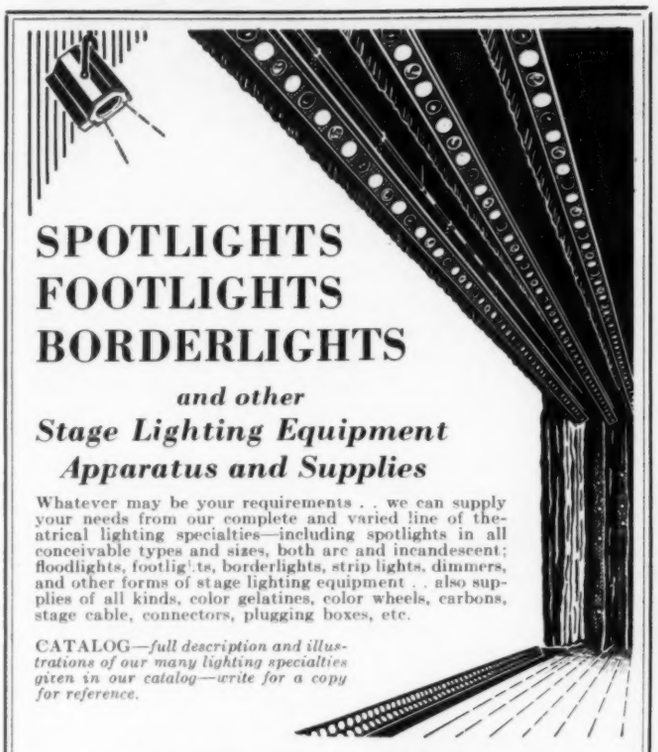
Nov. 27-30—Virginia Education Association, Richmond.

Nov. 29-Dec. 1—Texas State Teachers Association, Galveston.

Dec. 5-8—American Vocational Association, Pittsburgh.

Dec. 19-21—New York State Association of District Superintendents, New York City.

Dec. 26-28—Pennsylvania State Education Association, Harrisburg.



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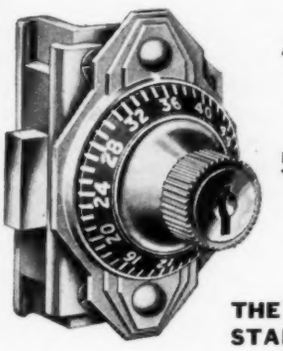

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THE NEWS OF THE MONTH

Plans Announced for Sixty-Fifth Meeting of Department of Superintendence in February

By E. E. OBERHOLTZER
President, Department of Superintendence, N. E. A.

The sixty-fifth annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association will be held in Atlantic City, N. J., February 23-28.

The nearness of the meeting place to Washington makes it possible to arrange for the participation of many prominent government officials and leaders in the various professional and industrial fields. Arrangements are now being made to provide for significant new features in the general sessions. One of these meetings, dealing with vital issues of great national importance, will be invaluable to members who are privileged to attend.

There is no one specific general theme for the meeting. It is intended that the program shall be comprehensive enough to cover the most essential aspects of present educational problems. In organizing the program, special attention has been given to the analysis of current problems. Six or eight sections, known as the forum-discussion groups, will meet on Monday and Wednesday afternoons. Prominent leaders have been selected as chairmen and some of the best authorities in the field have been chosen for speakers.

It is intended to emphasize some of the broad fields of interest as indicated by such subjects as the following: "The Support and Control of Public Education in a Democracy," "Personnel Problems in Educational Administration," "Recent Trends in Educational Programs," "Administrative Problems," "The Outlook for New Educational Programs With Special Emphasis on Social-Economic Phases" and "Curriculum Trends and Controversies."

In addition to the forum-discussion meetings, a series of meetings on Tuesday afternoon, known as the study-discussion groups, have been arranged. Perhaps twenty-five or thirty sections will be organized according to chief interests with discussion centered on problems related to the larger issues. These groups will be set up in advance of the meeting for study and will present at Atlantic City the results of preliminary studies and investigation and valuable materials that have been collected as a result of research, summarization or other development related to the issues of the major meetings. The questions chosen for the study and discussion by these groups will be drawn from the larger themes of the forum-discussion meetings.

It is intended that the forum-discussion and study-discussion groups, dealing with these large and comprehensive problems, will develop materials of sufficient interest so that a pamphlet relating to these particular themes may be published for the use of the members. It is hoped that each member of the department will give his wholehearted support and assistance to these programs.

In addition to arrangements for the program at Atlantic City, preliminary arrangements have been made to develop field interest in the work of the Department of Superintendence. A committee on the development of opportunities in the field of radio broadcasting has been set up. Belmont Farley of the National Education Association is chairman and William D. Boutwell of the U. S. Office of Education and Ben H. Darrow, chairman of radio education in Ohio, are members.

This radio committee has planned a program for local stations and a complete organization by states has been effected. The scope of this movement is indicated by the objectives outlined by the committee, first, to secure greater use of local broadcasting stations for educational programs, and, second, to increase the listening audience for coast-to-coast programs.

Health Service Restored

The common council of Detroit has provided finance for the restoration of public school health service discontinued two years ago as a depression measure. One hundred doctors, each working half a day, will care for the physical examinations of school children. Their services will be supplemented by a staff of nurses.

New York School Superintendents Meet

Talks and round table discussions occupied the attention of approximately 350 school men in attendance at the fifty-second annual meeting of the Council of School Superintendents, held September 24 to 26 at Saranac Inn, N. Y.

Information on recent trends in elementary education which superintendents can pass on to teachers was submitted by a large group of speakers and occupied the major share of the program. School maintenance as applied to both interior and exterior was another subject discussed.

Frank R. Wassung of Norwich, N. Y., was elected president for the new year, succeeding Alexander W. Miller of Glens Falls.

Rochester, Mich., Improves Its School Buildings

Under CWA and emergency work relief, Rochester, Mich., has improved its school plant extensively, according to A. L. Cook, superintendent of schools. An eight-room building which was about to be condemned has been completely rebuilt, modernized and made as nearly fireproof as possible. The rooms have been finished in three-tone enamel. Terrazzo corridors, a new roof, new sanitary equipment, an outside painting job and improved lighting, both artificial and natural, have been provided. The total cost was in excess of $30,000. The school will henceforth be known as the William F. Harrison School.

Extensive improvements have been made in the Central High School involving the provision of a new library and reading room and library equipment. The school has been completely redecorated on the interior. The grounds of the Woodward School have been landscaped and graded. Steam for heating has been extended to all of the rooms in the central group, thus eliminating two hot air heating plants.

Extensive changes have also been made in the course of study. The commercial, physical education, industrial arts and home making departments have been extended by the addition of courses of a more practical nature. The high school enrollment has increased from 320 to 395 in the year.

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IN THE EDUCATIONAL FIELD

Eastern States

HARRY J. RUTTER, principal of the DeLong Memorial Junior High School, Washingtonville, Pa., died recently at Northumberland, Pa.

ROBERT L. ZINK, for thirty-two years principal of Lincoln Junior High School, Bridgeport, Conn., died in Bridgeport on September 22. Mr. Zink was sixty-nine years old.

DR. HERMAN PIATT, principal of Public School 46, New York City, died recently after three months' illness. Doctor Piatt, who was sixty-five years old, had been in poor health for several years.

DANA Z. ECKERT is the newly appointed principal of the Henry Clay Frick Training School for Teachers, Pittsburgh, succeeding HERBERT L. SPENCER, who has been named dean of the college, University of Pittsburgh.

DR. DIXON RYAN FOX was installed on October 12 as president of Union College, Schenectady, N. Y. Doctor Fox was formerly professor of history at Columbia University.

ERNEST A. HARDING, superintendent of schools, Bergen County, New Jersey, has been appointed assistant commissioner in charge of elementary education for New Jersey. He will be succeeded in Bergen County by GEORGE R. ZIMMERMAN of Englewood.

DR. TYLER DENNETT has assumed the office of president of Williams College, Williamstown, Mass. Doctor Dennett is the tenth president of that institution.

WILLIAM FRANKLIN SANDS, professor of international relations at Georgetown University, Washington, D. C., has been named headmaster of the Newman School, Lakewood, N. J. Mr. Sands succeeds WILLIAM GRIFFIN KELLEY.

ROBERT P. BARNER, principal of the Senior High School, Rochester, Pa., has been elected superintendent of schools in that city.

DR. GEORGE EMERSON QUAILE, formerly headmaster of the Salisbury School for Boys, Salisbury, Conn., died recently at his home after a short illness. In 1894 he became headmaster of St. Austin's School at Castleton, Staten Island, N. Y., which in 1902 he moved to Salisbury, at the same time changing its name. He was at one time president of the Association of Headmasters.

FULLER L. AUSTIN, until recently director of research in the Nebraska department of public instruction, has been appointed superintendent of schools at Southbridge, Mass.

DR. MORTON GOTTSCHALL has been appointed dean of the school of liberal arts and science at the College of the City of New York.

Southern States

R. G. VINSON, for five years superintendent of schools at Fayetteville, Ga., has been appointed superintendent of schools at Baxley, Ga. He succeeds W. D. MILLER whose wife, Caroline Miller, won the 1933 Pulitzer prize for her novel, "Lamb in His Bosom."

Western States

FLORENCE HUTSINPILLAR, who has been director of the U. S. Children's Bureau since 1927, is the new director of the Department of Social Work at the University of Denver. She takes the place of ELEANOR KIMBALL, who resigned to return to social work in California.

A. LAWRENCE DEAN has been appointed superintendent of schools at Troy, Mont., succeeding GEORGE O. WHITE.

LUCY S. GILDEROY has been named superintendent of schools, Musselshell County, Montana.

HOMER ANDERSON, formerly of Rosebud, Mont., has been named superintendent of schools at Columbus, Mont.

DOUGLAS GOLD, superintendent of schools at Browning, Mont., has been named to succeed JESSIE G. RAGSDALE as superintendent of schools at Butte, Mont. K. W. BERGAN, formerly superintendent at Cascade, Mont., has been appointed head of the school system at Browning.

OMER J. MONGER has been appointed superintendent of schools at Harrisburg, Ore.

CURTIS E. WARREN has been appointed superintendent of schools at Santa Barbara, Calif., succeeding HOMER L. NEARPASS, resigned. Mr. Warren served as superintendent of schools at Burbank, Calif., from 1932 until his present appointment.

ROSS I. DUFF has been named to succeed W. G. KERSHBERGEN as superintendent of schools at Fromberg, Mont.

Middle Western States

DR. GEORGE C. BRANDENBURG, head of the school of education at Purdue University and director of its summer school, died recently.

DODDS TURNER, formerly of Cedar Point and Sterling, Kan., is now superintendent of schools at Lehigh, Kan.

PHILIP KOOPMAN, principal of the high school at Caro, Mich., has been appointed superintendent of schools in that city, succeeding the late M. J. CRAWFORD.

ASA A. WOLFE has been appointed superintendent of schools in Red Willow County, Nebraska, succeeding R. B. SOMERVILLE.

M. F. STARK, formerly of Greensburg, Kan., is now superintendent of schools at Meade, Kan., succeeding D. W. LEWIS.

DR. ELMER BURRITT BRYAN, president of Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, since 1921, died in Detroit on October 15 after an illness of several weeks. Doctor Bryan was well known in the Middle West for his administrative ability and also for his contributions to the literature in education.

RALPH SMITH is the new superintendent of schools at Girard, Kan.

REV. FATHER LESTER W. SEEMAN has been appointed superintendent of Catholic schools in the diocese of LaCrosse, Wis., comprising 110 schools. The superintendency is a newly created post in the LaCrosse diocese.

E. V. KENNEDY is the new superintendent of schools at Elnora, Ind.

CHARLES L. SPAIN, deputy superintendent of schools, Detroit, has been placed in active administrative charge of higher education in the Detroit school system, with the title of vice chancellor. Other changes resulting from the recent death of two assistant superintendents are as follows: JOHN F. THOMAS becomes first assistant superintendent in charge of finance and

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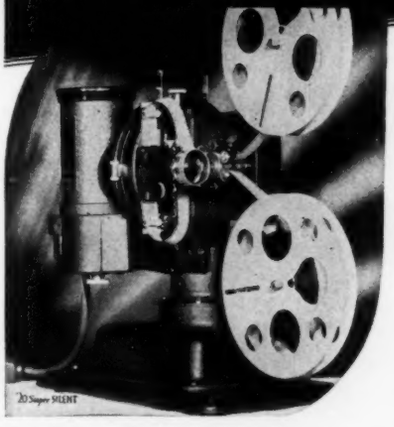

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IN THE EDUCATIONAL FIELD

general administration; WARREN BOW, as assistant superintendent, takes over the duties of the late Edwin L. Miller in secondary education as well as continuing his former assignment as personnel director, and HERMAN BROWE becomes supervising principal for elementary education.

K. H. MCFALL, superintendent of schools at Randolph, Ohio, has been appointed director of admissions at Mt. Union College, Alliance, Ohio.

J. B. STOUT, superintendent of schools at Shabbona, Ill., for the past fifteen years, has been named superintendent at Momence, Ill.

New Copyright Date Is Meaningless, Report Shows

The matter of a recent copyright date is one of the important points that have been brought up in connection with the adoption of new books in many parts of the United States, it was pointed out in a paper discussed at a recent publishers' meeting. The implication is that if a book has been recently copyrighted, it must have been substantially revised in order to obtain that copyright, it was stated. Books have been copyrighted in recent years, however, which have contained practically no revision and no change, it was explained. Some books in the spring of 1934 bear 1934 copyrights, when the only change made in the book is the date on the copyright page. It was pointed out that the position of the Copyright Office in this matter is indicated by the following statement, which was made by the bureau on July 26, 1934:

"Any book submitted as a new edition with application on Form A-2, stating that in the reissued work copyright is claimed in new matter or substantial revision, will be registered, without any investigation on the part of the Copyright Office as to the amount of new matter, leaving it to the courts to decide (should occasion arise) whether there is sufficient new matter to justify a new claim of copyright. Of course, this does not mean that we do not examine the title page and preface, or introduction, if any, and if there is any conflicting statement it is usual to write to the applicant for an explanation. With our limited force it would be quite out of the question to make an examination of the text of the book for comparison with the original. Moreover, the original deposits would in most cases have long since passed out of our hands."

In other words, it was explained, the Copyright Office makes no guarantee, expressed or implied, that it compares the books submitted for registration with any previous edition of the same book, and the copyright date therefore means absolutely nothing except that the publisher has submitted the book in order to get a new copyright date. A book published fifty years ago and reissued in 1934 might perfectly well bear a 1934 copyright date without the change of a single word. If the question were brought into the courts, the court would undoubtedly declare the copyright illegal and might even penalize the publisher for obtaining the copyright under false pretenses, it was pointed out, but the chances of being brought into court are slight, and therefore the pernicious practice persists and will persist as long as the foolish idea remains in the minds of educators that a new copyright date means something.

Radio Advisory Council Meets in Chicago

From all parts of the country a nationwide interest in the future of American radio drew to Chicago, on October 8 and 9, scientists, economists, government officials, librarians, broadcasters, heads of schools, colleges and learned societies, clergymen, labor representatives, music lovers, parent-teacher and League of Women Voters' officials and others concerned about radio progress in the educational field.

Government *versus* private control of radio was a live topic of discussion at several sessions because of the fact that by February 1, 1935, the new federal communications commission must report on the proposal that congress by statute allocate fixed percentages of radio broadcasting to particular kinds of nonprofit radio programs.

Among the notables on the program were Harold L. Ickes, secretary of the interior; John H. Finley, associate editor, the *New York Times;* Walter Damrosch, composer and orchestra leader; John Erskine, author and head of the Juilliard Music Foundation; Henry W. Wriston, president, Lawrence College; Robert M. Hutchins, president, University of Chicago; William F. Ogburn, professor of sociology, University of Chicago and former director of research on President Hoover's committee on social trends; Frederick P. Keppel, president, the Carnegie Corporation; Lotus D. Coffman, president, University of Minnesota; Robert M. Sproul, president, University of California; Alfred N. Goldsmith, consulting engineer; Grace Abbott, professor of public welfare administration, University of Chicago; Rufus C. Dawes, president, A Century of Progress; George F. Zook, director, American Council on Education; Bruce Bliven, editor, *The New Republic;* E. H. Harris, chairman of the radio committee, American Newspaper Publishers Association, and Lyman Bryson, Teachers College.

Many proposals for changes in the present management of radio time were advanced, and objections to all of them were discussed. In the last analysis, the opinion seemed to prevail that radio in the United States will go exactly where the American public wants it to go.

Robert A. Millikan was reelected president of the council and the other new officers are: vice presidents, Livingston Farrand, Meta Glass, Robert M. Hutchins, Michael I. Pupin and Walter Dill Scott; chairman of the board, Harry W. Chase; vice chairman of the board, James E. Russell; treasurer, William J. Donovan; secretary, Levering Tyson.

New Education Degree Established at N. Y. U.

Dr. John W. Withers, dean of the New York University school of education, has announced that the degree of doctor of education is being offered by the school for the first time this fall.

"It is the purpose of the doctor of education degree to place major emphasis upon demonstrated ability to achieve in the actual work of education," Dean Withers declared. "General requirements for the degree are: broad general and professional scholarship; evidence of originality and continuous growth in the advancement of education, and demonstrated superior competence in the candidate's major field of educational service."

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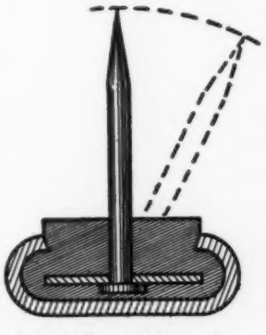

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RING LARDNER once published a list of the five most valuable books—the Bible, THE WINSTON SIMPLIFIED DICTIONARY, ETC.—"For those who like mysteries," he continued, "we recommend the time-table of the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railroad."

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PROBABLY no book awarded the Newbery Medal has had greater popularity than YOUNG FU.The author, Elizabeth Foreman Lewis, also had the unique distinction of receiving the award for the first and only book she ever wrote. That's history—here's news! A new book by Mrs. Lewis will be ready November 12—HO-MING, Girl of New China ($2.00); a timely Book-Week gift.

NEWEST of the new Pre-Primers is WAG—A FRIENDLY DOG. The text is by Ethel Maltby Gehres, Primary Specialist; the illustrations are action photographs by Ralph Milton Bair. You can almost hear Wag bark, the cow moo. The "Ah!" you hear is not a reaction from the pictures, but the price—$10.00 *a hundred.*

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MOTION PICTURES AND YOUTH. *By W. W. Charters. New York: The Macmillan Company,* 1934. *Pp.* 66.

Professor Charters offers a readable summary of the twelve psychologic and sociologic researches, made under the Payne Fund, into the influence of commercial motion pictures on young people. The methods of research and the results obtained are presented in such a way as to enable the lay reader to comprehend the nature of the techniques employed without becoming involved in a maze of technicalities. The inferences drawn from the studies are clear. Their implications are disquieting and some are appalling.

A STUDY OF SCHOOL HEALTH STANDARDS. *By Annette M. Phelan. Menasha, Wis.: George Banta Publishing Company,* 1934. *Pp.* 249. *Paper cover.*

A rather mechanistic piece of research based upon opinions and personal judgments rather than being functionally developed, this book represents much work but its real educational value is doubtful.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY ON THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES. *Selected and arranged by Edgar C. Bye. Revised edition. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company,* 1933. *Pp.* 104. *Paper cover.*

An already well known bibliographic aid for teachers of social studies appears in a new edition.

GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH YOUR CHILDREN. *By James W. Howard. New York: Leisure League of America. Leisure League Little Book Number* 3. *Pp.* 64. *Paper cover.* $0.25.

Here is an excellent little monograph for work in public relations and for use with parent study groups such as P.-T. A. and A. A. U. W.

MOTION PICTURES IN EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. *By Cline M. Koon. Chicago: University of Chicago Press,* 1934. *Pp.* 106. *Paper cover.* $1.

This report of the senior specialist in radio and visual education in the Office of Education discusses the possibilities of the noncommercial film in such phases of education as health, vocational education, patriotism and international understanding, and the problems of techniques of the amateur cinematographer. Extensive bibliographies and exhibits containing addresses of interested organizations, film sources and other material add greatly to the reference value of the booklet.

EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA. *By Henry Lester Smith and Harold Littell. New York: American Book Company,* 1934. *Pp.* 431. $3.

This rather sketchy description of the educational system of South America was prepared apparently from a reading of material already in published form rather than from original study and research. Its importance lies in the additional emphasis it will lend to study of the South American organization. It gives in compact form a bird's-eye view of our neighbors heretofore significantly ignored.

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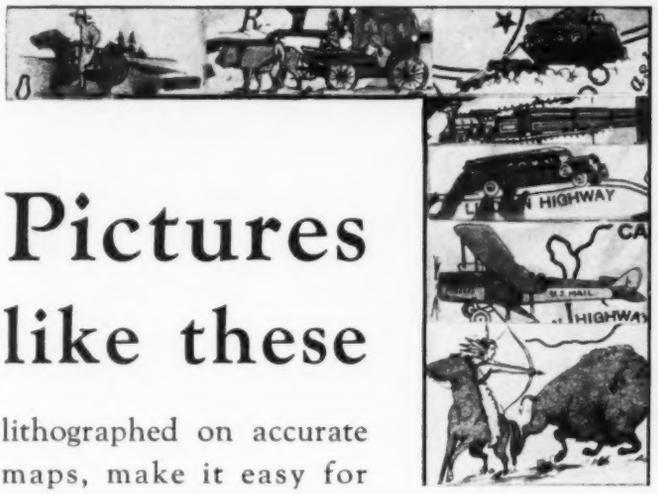

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THE ENGLISH OF BUSINESS. *By Hubert A. Hagar, Lillian Grissom Wilson and E. Lillian Hutchinson. (Parts One and Two). New York: The Gregg Publishing Company*, 1934. *Pp.* 228. $0.80. *(Accompanied by a workbook which sells for forty cents.)*

Of interest to all English teachers, this work is comprehensive and will pass critical inspection. It is developed in four units including grammar review, vocabulary, effective writing and oral English.

LA LOCURA DE AMOR. *Drama en Cinco Actos, por Manuel Tamayo y Baus. Edited by William Archibald Whatley and Randolph Arnold Haynes. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company*, 1934. *Pp.* 214. $1.

This scholarly editing of Tamayo y Baus' masterpiece is designed for college and high school use.

GROUP GOLF INSTRUCTION. *By Helen B. Schleman. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company*, 1934. *Pp.* 80. *Paper cover.* $1.

If the physical educationists are right, the application of the principles and practices presented in this monograph are going to affect the earnings of golf professionals considerably in the near future. Every teacher of physical education and athletics should be interested in this book which is a practical means for teaching a child an adult game within rational cost limits.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SYSTEM. *By Aubrey A. Douglass. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc.*, 1934. *Pp.* 491.

Well organized for elementary courses in school administration, this text is designed to present an overview of the public school in the United States to prospective teachers.

INTERESTING LETTERS. *Book One, Book Two and Teacher's Manual. By Sherwin Cody. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company*, 1934. *Pp.* 122. *Paper cover. Books One and Two*, $0.40 *each; Teacher's Manual*, $0.25.

The author of these books, designed for junior high school courses in letter writing, stresses naturalness as an important factor in current written expression and emphasizes the value of teaching colloquial English. His thesis: "All use of English should be a social procedure."

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES. *By Frank S. Freeman. New York: Henry Holt and Company*, 1934. *Pp.* 355. $2.50.

Here are an organization and interpretation of a highly controversial field in which a large amount of good research is being made. The material is well presented and the style is easy. The book is particularly valuable for administrative libraries in elementary and secondary schools.

MANUAL OF NURSERY SCHOOL PRACTICE. *By Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. Iowa City, Iowa: Bulletin of the State University of Iowa*, 1934. *Pp.* 215.

An interesting compilation of practices and procedures in the field of preprimary education at the University of Iowa, this book should be of immediate interest to all experimental and city nursery school centers.

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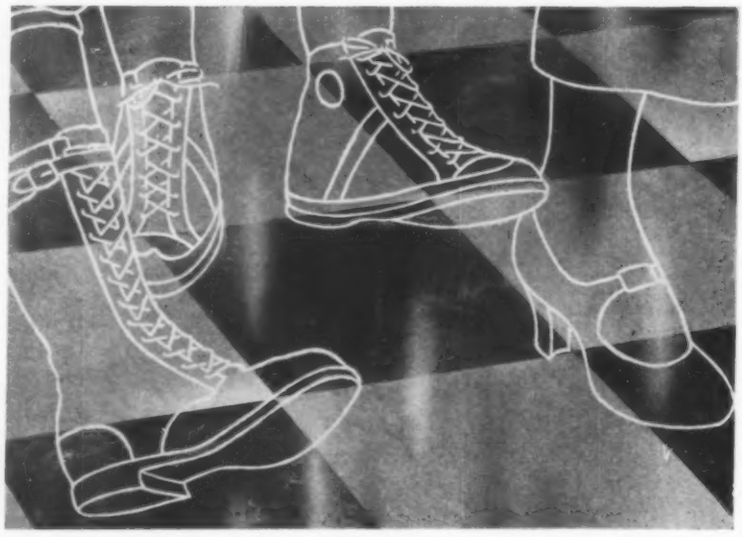

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Side Glances—

MANY educationists have declared that for the first time in our history a depression has seen a definite and alarming contraction in public education instead of the expansion that marked previous dark economic periods. Is this contention valid? Will the schools make any gains as a result of the depression? Read our editorial on this subject which will appear next month.

ARE you making plans to attend the Department of Superintendence convention at Atlantic City in February? The location alone should interest you but, in addition, President E. E. Oberholtzer promises a program that will be highly significant and valuable.

In the January issue Supt. A. S. Chenoweth also corrects some widely held notions that Atlantic City consists of a boardwalk and some rather unusual hotels. He describes the civic activities, especially the educational program. Visiting superintendents should not fail to include the schools in their convention program. The purveyors of supplies and equipment have also come out of their cyclone cellars and the commercial exhibit promises an unusual amount of new materials. There are still many rooms available. Make your reservations now.

WHILE Kentucky has not completely solved her educational problems, James H. Richmond, state superintendent, writes of the method by which the Bluegrass state has made "a generation's progress in education within the last two and one-half years." A most stimulating example for others to follow!

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PROF. Fred Engelhardt does not agree with Dean Francis M. Crowley's stand against the proposed twentieth amendment to the federal constitution regarding child labor. There is a clear-cut difference of viewpoint. We shall be glad to receive other expressions, pro and con, on the same subject. A good discussion does help clarify an issue.

A SANE discussion of the significance of mental health by Dr. Frederick L. Patry raises some significant questions of more than passing interest to superintendents and principals.

ENGLEWOOD, N. J., has just completed a beautiful secondary school named in honor of the late Dwight Morrow. It will be described fully in the January issue by Architect Lawrence C. Licht.

IN AN editorial (June, 1934) we raised several pertinent questions regarding the development of correspondence courses in public secondary schools. Prof. Knute O. Broady, University of Nebraska, who has been one of the aggressive pioneers in this field, has taken exception to our discussion. We suggested that he present his point of view. Doctor Broady and Director Earl T. Platt have done so in collaboration. Read our June editorial again and then study the Nebraska reply. Give us your own opinion. We think the subject is worth talking about.

OUR congratulations go to Willard E. Givens upon his election to the secretaryship of the National Education Association. One of the long list of Hoosiers who left the state and became prominent in public education, Mr. Givens has behind him a rich background of experience in territorial and continental United States public schools. Since 1928 he has been very successful as superintendent of schools at Oakland, Calif. He is forty-eight years of age, a graduate of both Indiana University and Teachers College, Columbia.

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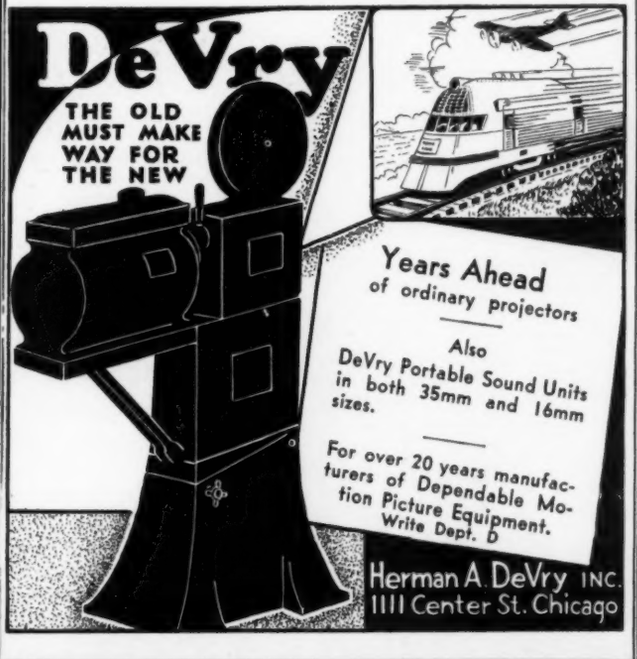
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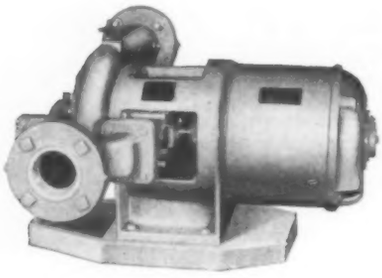

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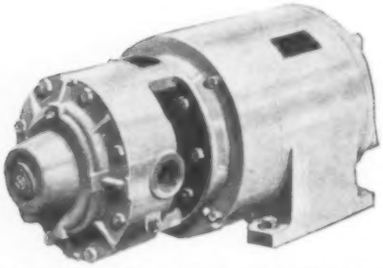

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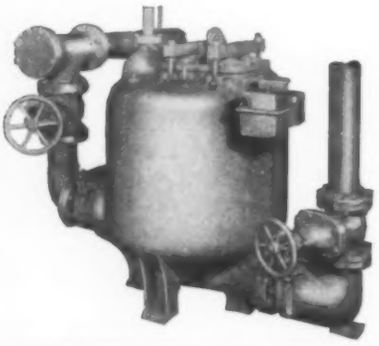

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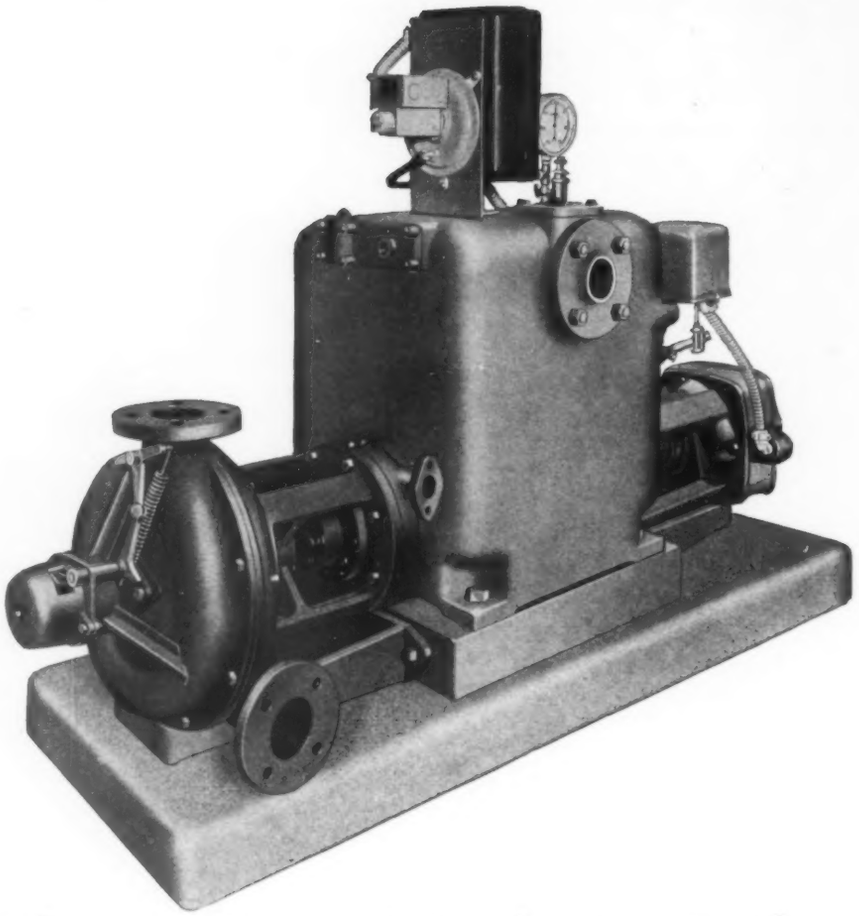

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